The Nation.

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The Week.

MATT QUAY won last week the greatest victory of his career. The fight for control of the Republican State convention in Pennsylvania this year has challenged the attention of the whole nation. The nominations to be made counted for nothing, except to the candidates for the State treasurership and a half-dozen judgeships. There was no controversy over the platform, like the one over the free-coinage issue that lent interest to the recent Democratic State conventions in Kentucky, Iowa, and Ohio. The fight was solely and purely for the control of the party machinery in the greatest Republican State, with a view to its exercise in the national convention of 1896 and the disposition of the patronage in case a Republican President shall be elected next year. Quay's old pupils in Philadelphia had turned against him, and, under the lead of Dave Martin, sought to overthrow the man who had helped them into power. At the other end of the State, Chris Magee, who runs the party machinery in Pittsburgh, organized his forces in an alliance with the well-named "hog combine" of Philadelphia. Despite all these disadvantages, Quay won, dictated the terms of surrender, and shrewdly yielded to his opponents the empty honor of uncontested nominations while he pocketed the real prize at stake. There was hand-shaking of former opponents and plenty of gush over a harmonious party, but the real harmony consisted only in the absolute yielding of all would-be usurpers to the dictator whom they could not dethrone.

Quay's appearance in the rôle of reformer lends the needed touch of humor to a performance which would otherwise have been too solemn for many of the participants. The resolutions which he himself introduced, "decrying the growing use of money in politics," "earnestly insisting" upon wholesale measures of civil-service reform, "demanding that public office should be for the public benefit, and its term in subordinate positions should be during good behavior," declaring that "schools should be divorced from politics," and the rest of it—how grotesque it all sounds! It is a satisfaction to find that the sound-money sentiment of Pennsylvania insisted upon a "flat-footed" declaration against free coinage at 16 to 1, which a Republican convention in that State has never before made; and forced the abandonment of the absurd plank favoring the expansion of the currency to $40 per capita, which the boss put into the platform last year and the year before. For the rest, if Matt Quay represents the perfect flower of Republicanism in the greatest "Republican stronghold" of the Union, the country can stand it if Pennsylvania can.

Quay seems to have had the enthusiastic support of the G. A. R. in his recent fight for the control of the Republican party of Pennsylvania. The fact that the leader of the opposition forces, Gov. Hastings, had vetoed a bill giving preference in appointments to honorably discharged soldiers and sailors, and making it a misdemeanor punishable by fine to disregard this requirement, was made great use of to rally the soldier support to Quay's side. One veteran published a letter setting forth the Governor's dastardly conduct in the most "scathing" manner, and saying of the services which the veterans had performed in the war that the flags floating from the school-houses were "enduring monuments of the bravery of the Pennsylvania soldier," adding: "Any man with an ounce of brains would know that were it not for the courage and heroism of our soldiers upon the battlefield, there would be no flag, no schoolhouse, no teachers, nor no children of any account in the State to-day." It cannot be denied that if this view of the soldiers' services is correct, and even children would have ceased to be born in Pennsylvania if those services had not been rendered, no reward can be too great. The old soldier from whom we have quoted is, therefore, quite modest in his demands when he goes on to say: "Whenever and wherever there is a 'soft place' within the gift of the Administration, where the work is light and the salary heavy, that is the place for the old veteran. It is his by right of conquest, humanity, and common sense."

It is rather hastily assumed that because Quay has become once more the undisputed Republican boss of Pennsylvania, Mr. Harrison has lost all chance of the Presidential nomination next year. This does not follow by any means. Quay was just as much opposed to Harrison in 1892 as he is now, and Pennsylvania was against his renomination at the Minneapolis convention—that is, she cast 45 of her 64 votes against him. It is assumed by some of the Republican newspapers also that Platt will control the New York vote just as Quay will control that of Pennsylvania, and that it will be cast against Harrison for that reason. This is another *non sequitur*. Platt is no stronger in Republican party councils than he was three years ago—in fact, is rather weaker. He did all that he could at Minneapolis to prevent Harrison's renomination, yet 27 New York votes were cast for the latter, 35 going to Blaine and 10 to McKinley. There is nobody in the field now who possesses anything like Blaine's strength in the party in New York. It will be correspondingly difficult for Platt to divert from Harrison any votes that are inclined to go his way. If it be true, as the Harrison men claim, that the Republican masses are for him, Mr. Platt will not be able to turn them against him, nor will Quay, with all his prestige, exercise much influence outside of his own State.

Northern Republicans who believe in sound money cannot be pleased with the outlook in North Carolina, as there is every indication that the Republicans and Populists mean to maintain the fusion which they established successfully last year. The Republican and Populist members of the last Legislature from Cleveland County and the chairmen of the Republican and Populist executive committees in that county have issued a statement declaring their belief that "it is essential for the welfare of the State and the preservation of the laws passed by the Legislature" that there shall be a continuance of the fusion, or "coöperation," as they prefer to style it, between the two parties next year. Moreover, the Populist managers declare their readiness, in view of Republican liberality in the division of the offices already won, to let the Republicans have the candidate for Governor; and the Cleveland County fusionists "take pleasure in unfurling to the political breeze the name of Judge Daniel L. Russell of Wilmington, as the Cooperation candidate for Governor of North Carolina for 1896, and pledge him our hearty support and promise to do everything in our power that is honest and legitimate to bring about his nomination." Mr. Russell has been prominent in North Carolina politics ever since the war, was once elected by the Republicans of his district to Congress, and is probably as good a man as could be named in point of personality. But the fatal defect of his candidacy is that any fusion nominee must run upon a free-coinage platform.

An extraordinary incident of the Mississippi campaign is the demand upon the Democratic candidate for Governor, whose election is assured, for a pledge that he will not pardon out of the penitentiary a group of murderers, and his prompt recognition of the propriety of the demand. It appears that before the candidate for State Senator who recently went with three friends in pursuit of an unarmed man began preparations for the killing, he retained ex-Senator Laurin, the gubernatorial nominee, as his counsel in the legal proceedings which he expect-

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ed would grow out of the encounter upon which he deliberately entered. In other words, he planned a cold-blooded murder, and engaged the future Governor to defend him. Naturally enough, the disclosure of this fact aroused suspicion that the counsel, when elevated to the executive chair, might pardon his former client and the latter's equally guilty friends, who were forced by an unexpected display of popular indignation to plead guilty of murder and take a sentence of life imprisonment. Mr. McLaurin says that he does not think any application will be made to him, but that if one should be made, "it would be indelicate and improper in me to grant a pardon in this case, and I would therefore neither grant the pardon nor consider the application." This vindicates the next Governor, but what shall be thought of a state of society where a prominent politician goes about a murder so coolly that he engages the lawyer to defend him before he shoots his man?

Massachusetts has a political organization of a rather novel sort. The Socialist Labor party has just held a State convention and nominated a full ticket for the November election, but the candidate for Governor says that "the party is not at this time looking for votes." The mission of those already enlisted is only to teach the working people the doctrine of international socialism and organize "sections," as the subordinate bodies are called, with a view to the education of the voters. The leader has an unfaltering faith in the final success of the party "within a generation." This is a greater exhibition of self-restraint than we are accustomed to see in our politics—especially when "all that is necessary is that the common people, the working people, go to the polls and elect men who are pledged to carry out the demands of the party." When those demands are carried out, by the way, the millennium will be ushered in, with "the human race one great family organized on a business basis for the common good." The candidate for Governor insists that "there is nothing complicated or Utopian" about this scheme, and it really does not appear why we should have to wait a generation for its fulfilment.

The New York Liquor-Dealers' Association has ratified the resolution of its executive committee, pledging all its members to keep their saloons closed on Sunday hereafter in obedience to the law. There were some dissenting voices, but the vote in favor was by a large majority, and the entire association will be bound by it. Some of the observations made by the President of the association in advocating the adoption of the resolution were remarkable. He said that, under former officials, the law was interpreted with such liberality that the liquor-dealers were able to violate it without incurring disgrace of any kind, but at present it was impossible for them to violate it without being branded as criminals and constant violators of the law. He declared that the liquor-dealers must place themselves "in the category of citizens who respect the law, be it what it may, must comply with the law at present and assume their places in the community as law-abiding citizens," and devote their energies to securing the enactment of more liberal laws. He said very truly that both political parties had been hostile to them, and he might have added that both had played tricks with them in the past and are likely to pursue the same policy in the future. The chances at present are that neither party will venture to take up the question of local option in its platform this year, but will seek to dodge the issue and to put its opponent on the unpopular side of it.

The arrival in this city of a fleet of steel canal-boats towed by a steam propeller from an Ohio port is an event of much significance. For a number of years the old-fashioned wooden boat towed by horses or mules has been losing in the race, and the boatmen have had hard work to make a living. The Delaware and Hudson Canal Company long ago found that it was cheaper for them to carry their coal by rail than by boat, and have continued to operate their canal less from business considerations than from motives of mercy to the unfortunate men whose little capital was all invested in the canal industry. The new steel boats, drawing but six feet of water, have the relatively small carrying capacity of 250 tons. But they should be compared, not with the great lake or ocean steamers, but with freight-cars, which they much resemble in function. The propeller corresponds with the locomotive, and the carrying capacity is that of the fleet that is towed, as the train-load is the true unit of reckoning in railroad computations. From the experimental trip concluded last Thursday it would appear that a fleet of these boats drawn by one propeller can carry over 1,200 tons of freight, or four or five ordinary train-loads. How far the low rate of speed attainable may offset the gain from cheapness of operation is a question which the railroads will need to investigate. At all events, it should not be forgotten that a vast amount of freight necessarily goes in comparatively small lots, and that the internal distribution of goods is a far greater commerce than the exportation of grain and provisions in bulk.

The deficit of the National Treasury for the last fiscal year is in round figures $44,000,000. For the previous year it was nearly $70,000,000. Thus it appears that the Treasury has gained $26,000,000 without any help from the income tax. Twenty-six millions is a very small sum in the fisc of a country like ours. Yet it is much to be desired that it should be on the credit rather than on the debit side of the ledger. That the receipts will equal or exceed the expenses of the present fiscal year is the belief of the best judges in Washington. In a letter to a morning newspaper, Postmaster-General Wilson considers the prospect of a large increase of revenue from customs duties very hopeful, as a consequence of the renewed prosperity of manufacturing industries. "Tariff reform," he rightly says, "although wounded in the house of its alleged friends, is triumphantly justified by its results." This remark, by the way, may be taken by Senator Gorman as a reflection on himself.

Secretary Morton continues to infuriate the protectionists by the economies which he is enforcing in his department. His last reform consists in winding up the business of carrying on experimental sugar stations, and the particulars of this business as carried on by Government may be commended to the attention of those who desire to nationalize our industries. During the last ten years Congress has appropriated over half-a-million dollars to carry on experiments in the manufacture of sugar, nearly half of which was expended in the purchase of materials and machinery. Yet for three years nothing has been done at any of the stations, and nothing for four years in Kansas. Last winter Senator Peffer laid before the Secretary a bill providing that any person found in possession of any of this machinery should be considered to have good title to it—a measure of such suggestive character as to indicate the need of prompt investigation. It now appears that something like $10,000 has been received by the department from the sale of machinery and buildings, and that there remains only one factory to be disposed of. No evidence can be found that a pound of sugar was ever made from sorghum, but doubtless experiments were made. Probably it was the intention of Congress to produce not sugar, but experiments, and to employ as many people as possible in this valuable industry. In short, although no pure, unadulterated sugar may have been produced, the sugar-experiment business beats the record, Secretary Morton says, as a pure, unadulterated steal.

The arrest of the band of Cuban filibusters ought to have a sobering effect on many excited minds. We do not suppose it will prevent the reckless press from keeping on after its kind, but it ought at least to instruct Cuban agitators in this country that the reckless press is one thing, and that the law is quite another. The hysterical people who ask why we do not throw over Spain and "free" Cuba, do not stop to ask what are our obligations to Spain. They are, first, the general

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obligations which, under international law, one nation is under towards another—obligations which especially embrace the duty of strict neutrality in case the other country is at war or has a rebellion on its hands. That it would not be a serious breach of neutrality to allow an armed expedition against Cuba to fit out in the United States, the country that made England smart for letting the *Alabama* get away should not have the face to suggest. Then, we have our special treaty obligations to Spain, and our own laws which make crimes of such acts as those for which the Cubans were arrested on Friday by the federal authorities. Whatever our sympathies may be, we have but a single course to follow under the law.

Mr. James Schouler's second *Atlantic* article on President Polk's Administration gives most interesting revelations concerning the Mexican war. The historian says that the Polk diary and correspondence, "with their private disclosures, *confirm the worst that was ever* imputed to this Administration in its deadly and depredating course." Particularly flagrant does Polk's war message of May 11, 1846, appear. The President had hoped to get territory from Mexico by purchase, but on Saturday, May 9, Slidell came back to Washington to report the frustration of that hope. Polk immediately called his cabinet together and told them that he desired at once to send to Congress a war message. The majority concurred, though Buchanan hesitated, and Bancroft candidly said that we ought to wait for some act of hostility before declaring war. Polk, however, as his diary shows, determined to go on with the message. By a great piece of luck, that very night, after the war message was thus decided upon, news reached Washington of a skirmish on the Rio Grande, and the President jumped at the chance to say to Congress that "War exists, and, notwithstanding all our efforts to avoid it, exists by the act of Mexico herself." Such perfidy is monumental, and the wonder is that Polk should have left behind him the papers to display it to posterity. But he had a curious conscience. He worked on his message all day Sunday, except the time spent in public worship of the Prince of Peace, and, after deliberately spending the day in doing what he knew would plunge two nations into needless strife and bloodshed, piously recorded in his diary, "It was a day of great anxiety to me, and I regretted the necessity for me to spend the Sabbath in the manner I have." Posterity may discern a parallel to this piety in President Harrison's Sunday Chilian war message.

No British Prime Minister in an official and public address ever went the length that Lord Salisbury did in his speech in the House of Lords in threatening the Turkish Government. This was the more remarkable as coming from the leader of the Tory party—a party which, as Lord Salisbury said, had been traditionally anxious to maintain the integrity and independence of the Ottoman Empire. Yet he went on flatly to say that there was nothing but a "factitious stability" about that empire, which might fail the Sultan at any moment if he did not take heed to his ways. The Sultan's boasted "prerogatives," affirmed the Prime Minister, were only "nominal," and his "independence" only "formal"; which is but another way of saying that England is prepared to go ahead, treaties or no treaties, and make the Sultan reform his government of Armenia or be himself reformed altogether off his throne. Mr. Gladstone, in office, never spoke so bluntly as this. We doubt if even Lord Palmerston ever did. With three British men-of-war reported on the way to Constantinople to back up Lord Salisbury's words, it is no wonder that the Turkish Government is now said to be in a great scramble to do something for Armenia. Mr. Gladstone urged Salisbury to say "must," and he has said it.

An amusing feature of the debate on the Address in the House of Commons was the attempt made to hold the Tories up to their ante-election promises in regard to their famous "social programme." One amendment moved was, "But we humbly beg to draw the attention of your Majesty to the existing widespread depression in agriculture, and submit that it would be expedient to pass remedial measures during the present year." This produced vast squirming among the Conservatives. Only two months before, they had been reviling the Liberal Government for doing nothing for the farmer, and saying, when Sir William Harcourt asked them what they would do, "Put us in office and we will tell you." Now they are in office, but they will not tell. Solemn Mr. Chaplin said they must take time to consider, to prepare their bills with deliberation. Sir William rallied him with excellent humor on this sudden access of caution, and Mr. Balfour had to take refuge in Lord Salisbury's joke that all the Conservatives had ever promised to do was to think hard and long about depressed agriculture. Thinking is one thing and doing is another. So the amendment was voted down by a majority of 131. So, too, was voted down a similar amendment relating to the "evils arising from want of employment." The effect of office on the Tories is very like the effect of property on a Socialist: This is not such a bad world, after all; let us be careful how we make changes lest they be changes for the worse; above all, let us do nothing to put our property or our offices into the hands of those who will not make as good a use of them as we shall. So far, the vaunted social programme of the Tories is clearly a do-nothing programme.

The art of getting witnesses to testify to things they never dreamed of saying seems to be passing from the courts to commissions of inquiry about labor. Nothing is more common than for a zealous investigator to extract from an amazed witness all sorts of arguments and opinions to bolster up his pet theories. Mr. Chamberlain gave a beautiful example of this in a question he put when sitting on the English aged-poor commission. A rather slow-moving witness was testifying, when Mr. Chamberlain darted at him the question whether he didn't think there would be "a dangerous agitation if nothing were done—an agitation that the provision of an old-age pension scheme might do something to prevent." Of course the startled witness took the cue, and thought there would be a very dangerous agitation indeed, though it was evident that this was the first time he had ever heard or thought of such a thing. Imagine, however, the gravity and earnestness with which Chamberlain would say, in his next socialistic speech, that it was high time something was done, that the working classes were in an inflammable condition and might break out into riot and bloodshed at any moment, and if you didn't believe it, just read the testimony taken by the aged-poor commission. A great deal of the evidence quoted as to the opinions and wishes of laboring men is of precisely this character. Labor investigators are too often like boys throwing a ball against a barn: they get their own opinions bounded back at them, and then solemnly cite them as proof of what the working classes really think.

Despite what were taken for authoritative announcements to the contrary, Lord Salisbury's Government have decided to reverse the decision of the Rosebery cabinet to withdraw from Chitral. For the present at least, it was declared in both houses of Parliament in the debate on the Queen's speeech, the British garrison will be retained in Chitral, and the routes thither be kept open and patrolled by British troops. Lord Rosebery rather hotly attacked this policy of the new Government, asserted that it would necessarily result in a vast increase in the Indian army and the Indian budget, and added that, in his opinion, Russia would have good ground to be offended at what would look very much like a breach of faith. He read the proclamation of the Indian Government when the expedition was undertaken, which said: "The sole object of the Government of India is to put an end to the present and to prevent any future unlawful aggression on Chitral territory, and, as soon as this object has been attained, the forces will be withdrawn." Both Salisbury and Balfour contented themselves with saying that when all the papers were laid before Parliament, the decision of the Government would be fully approved.

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THE SOUTH DIVIDING.

BEGINNING with the Presidential election of 1876, the South became solidly Democratic, the Republican governments being soon afterwards made way with in South Carolina, Florida, and Louisiana, though these States were counted for the Republican candidate in the national contest. From that time down to and including the Presidential election of 1892 every one of the sixteen States in which slavery had once existed went Democratic, not only in national contests, but also in each election of Governor—with the single exception of Tennessee in 1880, when a split among the Democrats on the State debt question, which was the only issue, enabled the Republican nominee to slip in between his two rivals.

During all this long period, covering almost half of the time allotted to a generation of men, the Republican party of the nation pursued a policy which could not have failed to keep the South solid. It maintained on the statute-book laws regarding the control of elections which had been enacted for especial use in the South, and it constantly threatened to extend the scope of this federal interference with States in that section by passing force bills far more rigorous than the old laws. Just before the Republicans, for the first time since they came into power, lost control of both branches of Congress in 1875, the Grant Administration made a desperate attempt to pass such a bill, which was defeated only by the open opposition of Blaine, then Speaker, and some other prominent Republicans in the House. Sixteen years later, when a Republican President again was supported by a Congress Republican in both branches, the Harrison Administration repeated the attempt of Grant's, and failed only because free-silver Republican Senators from the mining States made a trade with Southern Democrats to block the force bill, in return for help in their free-coinage schemes.

Two motives combined to hold the Republicans to this sectional policy. One was the honest belief of many sincere members of the party that federal interference in Southern affairs was necessary for the protection of the negro voters, and essential to the full reaping of the "fruits of the war" in the emancipation and enfranchisement of the slaves. The other was the cool calculation of the managing politicians, that the solid South created by persistent threats of force bills would make the North so nearly solid as to insure the election of a Republican President more easily than would be possible by any other policy.

Thoughtful students of the race problem gradually reached the conclusion that federal interference in Southern affairs only harmed the negroes. Professional politicians found that the solid South bugbear had utterly lost its power to frighten anybody in 1892, when Illinois and Wisconsin went Democratic for the first time since the ante-bellum period, and Ohio came so near it that Cleveland actually got one of her twenty-three electoral votes. The Democrats came into full power in 1893, under the distinct pledge to repeal the existing federal election laws, and the pledge was promptly redeemed. The Republicans in Congress made only a perfunctory opposition. The true friends of the South among them at last realized that the force-bill policy did no good, from the standpoint of the public interest. The men who cared nothing for patriotic motives, but everything for partisan considerations, had become convinced that there was "nothing more in the bloody shirt." Repeal had hardly been carried before Republican journals began to admit that it was a good thing for the country—and for their party, too. To-day no politician would listen for a moment to the idea of reviving the policy of the Harrison Administration. Indeed, Joe Manley confessed to an interviewer the other day that "it would have been infinitely better for the Republican party if it had dropped the agitation of the force-bill question eight years before it did," as "that policy kept the South arrayed against it."

The effect of eliminating the sectional issue was plainly discernible in Southern elections last fall, and is still more obvious in this year's canvasses in that region. The force bill had been cunningly and successfully used by Democratic politicians to keep the whites together, not only in States where the negroes were numerous or even exceeded the whites, but also in the border States, where the black vote, if counted, could not be dangerous to white control. Attempts were made to draw the race line in Maryland and Kentucky, in Tennessee and Missouri, as well as in Alabama and Louisiana, and with too much success. In the election following the repeal of the federal election laws, on the other hand, the Republicans carried Tennessee on a square test between the two parties, for the first time since the reconstruction period; their candidate for Governor having several hundred plurality, although he was afterwards counted out by the Democratic Legislature. At the same time the Republicans, again for the first time since reconstruction, carried Missouri for minor State officers, both branches of the Legislature, and ten of the fifteen Congressmen. Simultaneously the Democrats, for the first time since reconstruction, lost the Legislature in North Carolina, and the two senatorships which that body had to fill, through the desertion of the party by enough whites to give the Republicans and Populists control.

The tidal wave which swept over the country last year, of course, put the Democrats at a disadvantage in the South, as everywhere else; but if the party organs and stump-speakers could still have used the force-bill issue, they might easily have held to their old allegiance enough whites to prevent the narrow Republican pluralities that were secured in Tennessee and Missouri. The change caused by the loss of this ancient issue is even more clearly visible in this year's campaigns in Maryland and Kentucky, particularly in the latter State, where it used to cut a great figure. In the old days, Hardin might have preached free coinage, and still have held sound-money Democrats to his support by urging the necessity of standing together in the interest of white domination in the South. As things are now, he cannot use the "horrors of negro rule" as a reason why Democrats who believe in an honest dollar should vote for a candidate advocating a fifty-cent dollar. The same tendency must operate in States further south as elections there come on.

The nation is immensely the gainer by the now assured division in the South. The solidity of one section was alike an injury to itself and a menace to the rest of the country. That substantially all of the white men in one-third of the land should vote together, decade after decade, was abnormal, undemocratic, and dangerous. The abolition of the old sectional issue, and the consequent division of the Southern vote, are grounds for national congratulation.

IMPROVED LEGISLATION.

No better subject could have been selected by Mr. Carter for his address to the American Bar Association than that of reform in our methods of legislation. Laws are like the books of the Sibyl: the fewer there are, the greater their value. In the State of New York we suffer under an annual infliction of nearly 2,000 pages of new statutes; and although the Legislature ceased its production several months ago, the people of the State, owing to the delay in publication, are still without any means of ascertaining what the newest laws are which they are expected to obey. A short time ago a judge in Buffalo discharged two barbers who were brought before him charged with practising their art on Sunday, contrary to the statute in such case made and provided, on the ground that no copy of the statute had been furnished to the court. Application had been made for such copy, but it had received no attention. Even if the statutes were promptly published, it is obvious that very few people could find time to read them, and no task is now more onerous to the bar than that of ascertaining the statute law actually in force. We have consolidations and codifications and revisions without number, but our last state is worse than our first, for before any one can be sure that the law is as it appears to be in the latest code, he must painfully inquire whether the previous statutes on the same subject have been repealed or amended, or have been allowed, by accident or design, to continue in force.

The revision of our statutes is no doubt

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theoretically desirable. We can imagine codes and revisions that would simplify and condense the law; but the commissions that are charged with this task do not perform it successfully. It is too often the case that appointments to such commissions are made as rewards for party services, and the appointees fail to exhibit a due sense of professional responsibility. A few years ago there was a revision of the general laws relating to corporations, and almost the first act of the Legislature succeeding that which had enacted this code was to repeal some of the exasperating innovations which it had introduced. More recently the law affecting dower was changed in a revolutionary manner, without the knowledge of the profession, and within a few weeks the Legislature was compelled to repeal the act in response to the chorus of complaints that arose from the bar. Last year an alteration was made in the law relating to the legitimacy of offspring. The change may have been a desirable one; the subject, however, is one of such fundamental importance that it should have received the most serious consideration. But it was accomplished in what may be fairly called a surreptitious manner. We venture to say that the people of the State are to-day ignorant that the alteration has been effected. It was not advocated by the bar or by the press, nor was it opposed. No newspaper, so far as we have observed, alluded to it or commented on it. Thus a fundamental change in the most fundamental of our social institutions, involving the decision of a question which has for ages exercised the thought of the most eminent writers on jurisprudence, was accomplished by the unknown author of an unnoticed act of the New York Legislature.

It is impossible to overestimate the political advantages of our peculiar system of combined national and State governments. They may be summed up in a word as averting from the people the most serious of the dangers of centralization. On the other hand, we are industrially one people, and the losses and inconveniences arising from the existence of more than forty different jurisdictions are very great. In so far as the people of the several States differ in their social standards and customs, it is altogether desirable that their laws should reflect these differences. But in their business affairs the differences are relatively slight, and uniformity of legislation ought to prevail. Some attempts have been made to secure such uniformity, and some progress has been made by the commissions already appointed by a number of the States. Good will eventually come from these attempts, but it is undeniable that they fail to arouse the interest of our legislators. Party advantage and the gains of office absorb their attention, and most of them would stare and laugh if any one undertook to engage them in discussions concerning comparative jurisprudence. As Mr. Carter says, never so much as at the present time has the need of competent legislators been manifest.

The reason assigned by Mr. Carter for abstaining from attempts to codify our unwritten law may strike those unfamiliar with legislation as paradoxical. The unwritten law of the several States is substantially the same, and therefore, he says, it ought not to be reduced to a written form. But experience has proved that Mr. Carter is right in holding that, if the attempt were made, it would result in "plunging the law into diversity." At the present moment it is seriously proposed to undertake a revision of the code of procedure in New York, which would amount for practical purposes to the enactment of an entirely new system of practice. No one could undertake to conduct a legal proceeding without the most anxious scrutiny of all the new provisions in the light of the old; and, no matter how perfect the new code might be, the next Legislature, following the example of all that have preceded it, would introduce hundreds of changes.

The truth is, as Mr. Carter declares, that we suffer from two evils, the passion for framing new laws, and the willingness of Legislatures to act upon subjects which are not proper subjects of legislation at all. On this account the substitution of biennial for annual sessions of the Legislature in most of the States is to be regarded as a conservative measure. Rather than have an excess of bad laws, we prefer to forego the possibility of obtaining a few good ones. But, of course, the true hope of improved legislation lies in obtaining improved legislators. In this direction many efforts must be made; but we can agree with Mr. Carter that nothing is more needed among us than "a deepened conviction that the sphere of legislation, like that of other forms of human activity, has its proper limits, which can never be exceeded without mischief, and a sufficient knowledge of what these limits are."

THE GERMAN ANNIVERSARIES.

It was lucky that Kiel came two months before Sedan—the glorification of peace before the celebration of war. Even French politeness would have been too severely strained if invited to the opening of the canal after the opening of the wounds of 1870. That was what some of the fervid French patriots wanted M. Hanotaux to say to Emperor William at the time: "After Kiel, will your Majesty also ask us to the fêtes at Woerth and Metz?" Yet, curiously enough, we find sensible German newspapers, like the Berlin *Nation*, gravely arguing that the whole series of commemorations running through the month of August, from Weissenburg up to Sedan, with their inevitable renewal of French rage, and their equally inevitable revival of the war-spirit in Germany, will make powerfully for international good feeling and peace. The argument, stripped of its philosophical elegances, comes down to about this: "We whipped you once and we can do it again, if necessary." This is the true way to make your neighbor love you and beat his spears into pruning-hooks.

Of course, it was inevitable that the anniversaries should be commemorated. Even the French admit as much. They think there has been too much exultation shown by the Germans, too defiant an attitude struck towards the France of 1895, and they say that French taste would have been sure to display in the same situation more considerate regard for the feelings of the vanquished, and would have made the tribute merely one to the memory of the heroic dead. But the non-French world will feel bound to acquit the Germans of anything unduly offensive in these celebrations. If there has been too marked a tendency to take the German army for the German nation, that has been largely the work of the harum-scarum young officer who now waves his good sword over the most learned heads of Europe. Even so essentially peaceful and civic a ceremony as the dedication of the national memorial to William I., big-booted William II. had to turn into a military display. The Reichstag voted the money for this memorial just as it did for the Kiel Canal; but whereas, at the opening of the latter, the President and Vice-Presidents of the Reichstag had a prominent part in the ceremonies, they had to give way to the Knights of the Black Eagle and army and navy officers when the corner-stone of the national monument to William I. was laid. And it was this occasion that the valiant grandson chose, to affirm that he was going to make the German army strong enough not only "to guarantee, but to dictate, the peace of Europe."

The Germans of 1895 might easily be pardoned for appearing more vainglorious than they do over the achievements of the Germans of 1870. It is not in human nature, even in Exeter Hall, to refuse admiration to that swift and terrible march to victory. But thoughtful Germans may also be pardoned if a certain melancholy and foreboding intrude upon them in these days of national festivity. The events of 1870 did not solve all of Germany's difficulties; they created new ones even harder to solve. A sober comparison of 1895 with 1870 is not wholly to the disadvantage of the latter. There were giants in those days. William I. could scarcely be called a great man, but he was one beside his megalomaniac grandson. From Bismarck to Hohenlohe is a terrible fall. And as for the unification of Germany, the phrase seems almost a mockery in view of the furious wrangling, and bitter factions, and legislative impotence of the German Parliament of to-day. The strongest party in the Empire at present is the one which the Emperor calls upon the Chancellor and the Reichstag to put down as revolutionary—the party that has filed its

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protest against the very fêtes in celebration of German unity. Thoughtful Germans, we say, might be excused for feeling somewhat depressed, as there are signs that many of them do, when they consider these things.

But such matters are, after all, it may be said, of the nature of accidents. There is no law of nature which prevents great men from having fools for their successors. Party development takes strange and unforeseen turns. Yet there are two great national perils now confronting Germany which may be said to have grown directly out of the war of 1870, and which are really more serious than any danger arising from the side of France under Napoleon III. One of these is the mania for war. This grows by what it feeds upon, and it has been grossly fed in Germany for twenty-five years. More regiments, has been the cry, bigger ships and guns, more elaborate equipment, swifter and completer mobilization, vaster annual manœuvres. It is not in flesh and blood to stand this tension for a long period of years without deteriorating or utterly breaking down. A nation that, in the midst of this industrial world, gives so much of its best talent and strength and treasure to perfecting instruments of destruction is not in a state of health. Preparing for all possible wars in order to make all wars impossible, is one of the shallowest sophistries that pass for statesmanship. What you really make impossible is a sound and stable national sentiment. The German nation, great in intellectual leadership, great in industrial expansion, cannot afford to pose before the world like a cowboy with his finger all the while on the trigger, lest somebody get the "drop" on him.

The other characteristic German peril is the mania for organization. It was organization, drill, method, bureaucratic supervision that conquered France; therefore let us organize everything. Take over the railroads and make state officials out of every porter and switchman. Fill the mines and forests with state operatives and inspectors. Seize on workingmen of all sorts and insure them against accidents, against old age, against death, against everything but the fussy interference and petty exactions of an over-organized government. It was in that spirit that Moltke conquered France, and it is in that spirit that we shall conquer social discontent. But this is very much as if the gastric juice should set about digesting the coats of the stomach. Organization run mad destroys a government. The German Socialists are the true logicians. "Certainly," they say, "organize everything, put all industry under state control, organize capital and interest and rent off the earth, and throne and altar along with them." But this logical extension of his own doctrines young Wilhelm calls rank *Umsturz*, and sets about putting it down by more organization, more uniforms and inspectors and bureaus; and what will the end be? We should hope, driving into the German mind the conviction that states cannot live by organization alone, and that it is time for the old German assertion of the rights of the individual to make itself heard again.

THE AUTHORSHIP OF GILES'S RESOLUTIONS.

BROOKLYN, August 17, 1895.

ON February 27, 1793, William Branch Giles, a member of Congress from Virginia, moved in the House of Representatives a series of resolutions, directed against Hamilton's conduct as Secretary of the Treasury, well known to the students of that period. For those resolutions, which constitute their mover's chief claim for mention in our national history, Giles has been more often abused than praised, but neither critics nor apologists have ever questioned if he had the ability to frame what he moved, or have searched for a more likely author for them. A rough draft of the resolutions, in the handwriting of Thomas Jefferson, furnishes a suggestion too strong to be disregarded, and a comparison of this series with those moved by Giles is interesting as showing how far they had been softened before they were laid before Congress:

JEFFERSON'S DRAFT.	RESOLUTIONS AS MOVED.
(1.) Resolved, That it is essential to the due administration of the Government of the United States that laws making specific appropriations of money should be strictly observed by the *Secretary of the Treasury* thereof.	(1.) Resolved, That it is essential to the due administration of the Government of the United States that laws making specific appropriations of money should be strictly observed by the *administrator of the finances* thereof.

The slight change in this first resolution was merely one which made the charge against Hamilton a shade less specific. The second resolution was identical with that of the draft. The third shows a marked departure:

JEFFERSON'S DRAFT.	RESOLUTION AS MOVED.
(3.) Resolved, That the Secretary of the Treasury, in drawing to this country and lodging in the bank the funds raised in Europe, which ought to have been applied to the paiments of our debts there in order to stop interest, has violated the instructions of the President of the United States, for the benefit of speculators, and to increase the profits of that institution.	(3.) Resolved, That the Secretary of the Treasury has violated the law passed the 4th of August, 1790, making appropriations of certain moneys authorized to be borrowed by the same law, in the following particulars, viz.: First, by applying a certain portion of the principal borrowed to the payment of interest falling due upon that principal, which was not authorized by that or any other law. Secondly, by drawing part of the same moneys into the United States, without the instructions of the President of the United States

This particular charge—that Hamilton had violated the instructions of the President in order to aid the Bank and speculators—was a favorite one of Jefferson's, as is shown by other papers. Thus, in a manuscript the purpose of which is not evident, but which I infer was drawn up as a guide for Madison in the series of attacks on the Treasury policy made or inspired by him in the session of 1793, the following paragraph occurs:

"The most prominent suspicion excited by the Report of the S. of the T. of Jan. 3, 1793, is that the funds raised in Europe & which ought to have been applied to the paiment of our debts there in order to stop interest, have been drawn over to this country & lodged in the bank, to extend the speculations and increase the profits of that institution."

Even more explicit was a second paper, submitted to Washington, in which Jefferson wrote, as a reason for disapproving of a new loan:

"The apprehension that the head of the department means to provide idle money to be lodged in the banks ready for the corruption of the next legislature, as it is believed the late ones were corrupted, by gratifying particular members with vast discounts for objects of speculation."

Why the resolution moved was changed in its character so as to omit all charge of corruption, and tone down the Secretary's act from "a violation" of the instructions of the President to an act done "without the instructions of the President," is obvious. At the moment when this whisper was most rife, it became known to a few of both parties that the Secretary had in his possession a written sanction for the acts so criticised, and that while Hamilton did not wish to involve Washington in the imbroglio, too direct an attack would force him to give publicity to his authorization, thus transferring the criticism from his own to his superior's shoulders. This was the last wish of Hamilton's enemies, and the clause was at once moderated so as to make the charge one of omission, not commission; and though Hamilton showed the letter to a few of his own adherents, he spared Washington the abuse that would have inevitably fallen upon him had the paper then been made public.

There were no differences between the draft and the completed resolutions 4-8, but what followed differed radically:

JEFFERSON'S DRAFT.	RESOLUTIONS AS MOVED.
(9.) Resolved, That at the next meeting of Congress, the act of Sep. 2d, 1789, establishing a Department of Treasury, should be so amended as to constitute the office of the Treasurer of the United States a separate department, independent of the Secretary of the Treasury.	(9.) Resolved, That a copy of the foregoing resolutions be transmitted to the President of the United States.
(10.) Resolved, That the Secretary of the Treasury has been guilty of maladministration in the duties of his office, and should in the opinion of Congress, be removed from his office by the President of the United States.	

In the Jefferson MSS. in the Department of State is a small, undated memorandum which was undoubtedly made at this period, and which, read in connection with this draft, is most illuminative. It is apparently an outline of the reforms in the Government desired by Jefferson, and, in the absence of a definite platform of the newly formed Democratic party, is therefore of considerable importance as showing its leader's plans to break up the "Treasury Junto," by dividing the Treasury and by excluding from Congress all holders of Bank stock. The report referred to is probably Hamilton's report on foreign loans, of January 3, 1793, which was specially obnoxious to Jefferson.

"Agenda.

Divide the Treasury Department.

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Abolish the bank.
Repeal the Excise law & let states raise the money.
Lower impost.
Treasurer to pay and receive cash, not bills.
Repeal irredeemable quality and borrow at 4 per cent.
Exclude paper holders.
Condemn report of."

It is interesting in this connection to read Jefferson's own history of these resolutions, written to his son-in-law, T. M. Randolph, on March 3, 1793, or the day after the last had been negatived in the House of Representatives:

"You have for some time past seen a number of reports from the Secretary of the Treasury on inquiries instituted by the H. of Representatives. When these were all come in, a number of resolns were prepared by Mr. Giles, expressing the truths resulting from the reports. These resolns you will see in Fenno's paper. Mr. Giles and one or two others were sanguine enough to believe, that the palpableness of the truths rendered a negative of them impossible, & therefore forced them on. Others contemplating the character of the present House, one third of which is understood to be made up of bank directors & stock jobbers, who would be voting on the case of their chief: and another third of persons blindly devoted to that party, of persons not comprehending the papers, or persons comprehending them but too indulgent to pass a vote of censure, foresaw that the resolutions would be negatived by a majority of two to one. Still they thought that the negative of palpable truth would be of service, as it would let the public see how desperate & abandoned were the hands in which their interests were placed. The vote turned out to be what was expected, not more than 3. or 4. varying from what had been conceived of them. The public will see from this the extent of their danger, and a full representation at the ensuing session will doubtless find occasion to revise the decision, and take measures for insuring the authority of the laws over the corrupt manœuvers of the heads of departments under the pretext of exercising discretion in opposition to law."

In the sting of this defeat, Jefferson recorded in his Ana a list of the "paper holders" and "bank-stock holders" who had voted down these resolutions, practically including the whole majority, for he names 28, and the resolutions were defeated by votes ranging between 38 and 40. A similar list was printed in a party pamphlet of the day relating to this matter, entitled: 'An Examination of the Late Proceedings in Congress respecting the Official Conduct of the Secretary of the Treasury,' which includes 34 names, agreeing most closely with Jefferson's set. In my 'Bibliotheca Hamiltoniana,' I hazarded the suggestion that this pamphlet was written by John Taylor of Virginia, but I have since found that it was published on March 8, or only a week after the voting down of the resolutions, and it must therefore have been written in Philadelphia. Jefferson himself mentioned the piece in a letter to Monroe (May 5), writing: "The fiscal party having tricked the House of Representatives out of the negative vote they obtained, seem determined not to lose the ground they gained by entering the lists again on matters of fact & reason. They therefore preserve a triumphant silence notwithstanding the attacks of the pamphlet entitled 'an examination, etc.,' and of Timon. They shew their wisdom in this, if not their honesty." From this list of corrupt Congressmen, as well as from certain other ear-marks, I infer that the same hand which drew Giles's resolutions had at least an overlooking eye upon the preparation of the pamphlet.

PAUL LEICESTER FORD.

ACROSS SIBERIA.—I.

OMSK, July 24, 1895.

THE great Siberian railway, properly speaking, begins at Cheliabinsk, nearly 1,400 miles beyond Moscow. This preliminary journey can be made in three days and four nights, on the whole not uncomfortably, at the exceedingly cheap rate of about thirty-seven and a half rubles, or some twenty dollars, for a first-class ticket. The fare all the way from St. Petersburg is proportionately even cheaper, as the Russian Government a few months ago introduced the system of a rapidly decreasing rate of mileage for long distances. The trip is only moderately interesting. The country passed through is flat and seems fertile and prosperous. The crowds at the stations are the usual picturesque, red-shirted muzhiks, with a sprinkling of the original native inhabitants as one gets to the eastward. The Volga is crossed on an iron bridge 1,484 metres long a few hours before the train reaches Samara. What one sees of the passage through the Urals is decidedly pretty, but to a foreigner hardly more, though the Russian, accustomed to level or rolling plains, is moved to much enthusiasm by mountains and valleys less striking than one can find, for instance, in New Hampshire.

Cheliabinsk is beyond the mountains, and already in Asia, but not in Siberia, as it lies in the government of Orenburg. The population, which is somewhere between fifteen and twenty-five thousand, is rapidly increasing, thanks to the railway, and is likely to continue to do so, as from here a branch line is being built to the Perm-Tiumén road, which crosses the Urals further north. The station, in true Russian fashion, is a good mile and a half from the city, and about it a suburb is quickly growing up. The place itself is in some ways not unlike some of our own Western ones of the same size, with its unfinished buildings and general air of untidy newness; but there is less bustle, and the color is different, for, instead of our prevailing white, most of the houses are unpainted and weather-stained, giving a generally dark effect. Very different, too, is the population, with its soldiers and officials in uniform, its peasants (for the lower classes in the Russian towns still are peasants, long-bearded, red-shirted), its Tatars and Kirghiz, the latter of whom are apt to live in the surrounding country, from which they come in to market. The streets are broad and shadeless, with the low houses, often of logs, straggling along loosely on either side; and carriages for hire abound, as the distances are considerable and the Russians are not fond of walking. Besides the churches, most of the chief buildings are public ones, such as official residences, schools, the offices of the railway, etc. The shops are small, but apparently not ill-supplied. Here and there one may see the omnipresent bicycle.

The Trans-Siberian itself is at present finished and open from Cheliabinsk to Omsk, a distance of 741 versts, or about 500 miles. It takes nearly forty-eight hours to traverse this, not so much on account of the easy slowness of the train as because at only one station does it stop for less than twenty minutes, while an hour or more is not infrequent. Our train was a fairly long one and packed, many of the upper-class passengers being on Government service; among them half-a-dozen engineers who were going two or three thousand miles further to work on another section of the road. Besides several baggage-cars, etc., there were three classes for travellers. There were no first-class cars, and the two seconds were borrowed from elsewhere, and so old, bad, and overcrowded were they that, like many of the other unfortunates with second-class tickets, I preferred to ride third. These thirds were the best I have ever seen, new-built expressly for this line, and capable at night of being turned into sleepers with three tiers of beds, thus insuring each of us a whole one, even if it was only a board. The five fourth-class cars were like freight cars plus a few windows, and were provided with benches filled with men, women, and children, a sturdy, cheerful crowd, not at all miserable in appearance, bound for the broad vacant lands to the east. Emigration to Siberia has increased very fast in the last few years. For a long time it was unwisely discouraged by the Government, which made futile efforts to check or limit it. This policy has now been abandoned, and last year well over a hundred thousand colonists crossed the Urals, the majority of them by the north to Tiumén and thence by steamer to Tomsk. There are various causes for this movement, such as exhaustion of the soil or growth of population till the lands of the Mir or commune are overcrowded; but perhaps the chief one is the restless, wandering spirit so characteristic of the Russian peasant. The extension of railways must stimulate this emigration, which will soon assume dimensions equalled only, if at all, by that of Europeans to the United States.

Such of the stations as were finished were satisfactory brick buildings, with granite water-towers near by, and each with its embryo garden. At each the sight was the same. Knowing that the wait would be a long one, the passengers streamed out for air, exercise, and refreshments. Three times a day we came to a buffet with very tolerable food, and more than ample leisure was allowed for a meal, while at every stopping-place there was a great samovar filled with boiling water from which any one could fill his precious tea-kettle gratis. A little way off, kept at this respectful distance by the orders of the gendarme who paced the platform, stood a crowd of peasants with wild strawberries or fish or vegetables or kumiss for sale, and from them the emigrants seemed to get most of their food, which they eked out with much tea. The town or village that the station represented was frequently not in sight, and in no case very close. Instead, there stood nondescript vehicles to carry any possible visitor to it. Among the loafers about were good-natured-looking Kirghiz, men of a marked Mongolian type and clad in sheepskins with the wool inside. They are largely still in a pastoral state, and own much of the land in this region, to the discontent of the more pushing Western intruder.

There are but two towns of any importance along the route, Kurgan and Petropavlovsk, each with some ten to fifteen thousand inhabitants. The whole way lies through a prairie broken by continual patches of woods or now and then a salt lake. The soil seemed to be a layer of black earth over sand, the degree of fertility varying with the thickness of the layer and its intermixture with sand. It can be fearfully cold here in winter, and must often be equally hot and dusty in summer; but, thanks to cloudy weather and occasional showers, we, at least, had nothing to complain of in this respect. Thus for two days and nights we jogged along until, on the third morning, we saw before us rolling northward the great river Irtysh, partly spanned by a fine half-finished railway bridge. By us were some wooden barracks for a temporary station, and in the distance, four or five miles off, the roofs and

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domes of the capital of this region, the city of Omsk. ARCHIBALD CARY COOLIDGE.

A UNIONIST'S VIEW OF THE GENERAL ELECTION IN ENGLAND.

LONDON, August 17, 1895.

FROM the result of the general election in England a thoughtful Unionist may draw with some confidence the following conclusions:

First. The people of the United Kingdom, or, to use ordinary language, the English people, have pronounced decisively against the policy of home rule for Ireland.

The validity of the conclusion, is, I am aware, disputed by Home-Rulers. It rests, however, not on any subtleties of political calculation, but on broad, indisputable facts, of which every man, whatever be his political leanings, can and ought to take notice. Up to the end of 1885 all English politicians of influence had, without exception, opposed the policy of home rule. Mr. Gladstone's conversion induced the mass of Liberals to overcome their natural repugnance for every scheme which repealed or invalidated the Act of Union with Ireland. In 1886 Mr. Gladstone brought forward his first Home-Rule bill. It was unhesitatingly rejected by the House of Commons, and, on an appeal to the people, was even more decisively rejected by the electorate. And the measure of 1886, be it noted in passing, offered great advantages to the people of Great Britain. It practically removed the Irish representatives from the Parliament at Westminster, and left to the Parliament at Westminster the control not only of all British but of all Imperial concerns. The current of events and the personal influence of Mr. Gladstone produced in 1892 a change of sentiment. The Liberals returned to office; they were supported, however, only by an uncertain majority of about forty—a number, by the way, which is almost equivalent to the excess, on democratic principles, in the Parliamentary representation of Ireland. They were authorized, or, to use the political slang of the day, "had received a mandate," to produce a measure of home rule. The bill of 1893 was produced. It offered to the people of Great Britain no one of the advantages presented by the bill of 1886; it was passed through the House of Commons by means of the closure and the gag. Many of its chief provisions were not so much as discussed; it was summarily rejected by the House of Lords; its authors dared not dissolve Parliament.

Unionists had, therefore, even before the general election a right to presume, as they did presume, that the bill of 1893 did not command the assent of the people. To suppose that Mr. Gladstone and his colleagues could, if Parliament had been dissolved in 1893, have obtained a majority in favor of home rule, is to accuse them, without the slightest cause, of blindness to their own interests and of treachery to their allies. If they could have commanded success in 1893, it was arrant folly to throw away their chance of victory and wait for the defeat of 1895. If they knew in 1893 that they could obtain a verdict of the nation in favor of home rule, they sacrificed the interests of the Irish Nationalists by refusing to appeal to the nation. Every one knows that Mr. Gladstone's cabinet were guilty neither of stupidity nor of treachery; they did not dissolve Parliament because they conjectured, rightly enough, that on the question of home rule the electors would support the House of Lords. This well-founded belief explains their whole subsequent course of action. The proposed crusade against the House of Lords, the refusal to accept any modification in the Employers' Liability bill, the scheme for Welsh Disestablishment, the advocacy of local prohibition—the whole policy, to put the matter shortly, of "filling up the cup"—was nothing less than an attempt, almost an avowed attempt, to carry some scheme of home rule not on its own merits, but as part of a general democratic policy. Of the morality of this mode of action I say nothing; this is a point on which the opponents and the advocates of home rule cannot be expected—human nature being what it is—to agree. What I do assert is that the course of action, which was by no means without its political recommendations, was an admission that the electorate of the United Kingdom was unfavorable to the policy of home rule. No one bribes a person to perform an act which he deems to be beneficial to himself and is ready to perform of his own accord.

A conclusion, however, which was rendered probable by the conduct of the Gladstonians from 1893 to the moment when Lord Rosebery resigned office, is made certain by the result of the general election. I doubt whether, in any foreign country, it is possible for men fairly to estimate the effect of this election. It comes more near to a plébiscite than any other demonstration of the national will which is possible under the English Constitution. It amounts to a general condemnation of the policy pursued by the Liberal party since 1885. Members of the Opposition, indeed, who think anything more possible than that politicians who deemed themselves the special and indeed the only friends of the people should be unpopular, find in the generality of their condemnation a reason for attenuating its effect. Because a verdict went against them on any definite number of issues, they argue that they were not found guilty on any one issue in particular, and, above all, that the people of the United Kingdom have not pronounced against home rule. The fallaciousness of this assertion is demonstrated by two considerations. Not a single supporter of Lord Salisbury's Government would have been returned to Parliament if he had avowed himself a Home-Ruler. If the election had resulted in a majority (I do not say of 152, but of 50) in favor of the Opposition, they would undoubtedly have asserted, and not without reason, that the nation had approved the policy of home rule.

Secondly. The Home-Rulers have suffered not only a repulse but a permanent defeat.

It has now become impossible that, during any time for which politicians need take forethought, an act should be carried establishing an Irish Parliament with a parliamentary executive. To assert this is a very different thing from saying that the home-rule conflict is over. How far and with what vigor the Irish Nationalists, or, what is a different matter, their English allies, will carry on the contest, no man can foretell; this is not a subject on which a Unionist will venture to prophesy. It is again probable that the swing of the pendulum will have its effect; it is possible, though not, I think, probable, that, at the next general election, say in 1900, the Opposition may obtain a decisive majority and return to office. Assume, for the sake of argument, that they in their turn will obtain a majority of (say) 100 to 150. Under said circumstances they will, of course, be able to carry a measure of home rule through the House of Commons; but, after all that has happened, it is idle to suppose that the House of Lords would allow such a measure to pass into law. The Peers must, under some form or other, insist on the specific measure being submitted to the arbitrament of the electors, and, as Unionists hold, it is now established that a law establishing an Irish Parliament will never receive the assent of the nation.

Thirdly. The salient political fact of the time is the increasing strength of English Conservatism.

The Opposition contend, and not without reason, that the unpopularity of Lord Rosebery's Government was due far less to its advocacy of home rule than to the other parts of its policy; but since Lord Rosebery and his colleagues were the avowed champions of every popular or democratic reform or nostrum, the assertion that their unpopularity was due, not to their being Home-Rulers, but, in effect, to their support of the Newcastle programme, is at bottom nothing but an admission that so-called democratic reforms are not really popular, and that in England modern Conservatism is a stronger force than modern Liberalism. Nor does the truth of this conclusion rest upon the result of the recent election, nor, indeed, upon any one recent event. Men past middle life who can carry back their memories over a period of more than forty years, say to 1852, when the Conservatives first began to rally from the crushing blow of 1845, will see that, on the whole, decade by decade, the Conservative forces of the country have, under modern forms and in new shapes, gained strength. It is, of course, true that the Conservatism of to-day is a very different thing from the Conservatism of forty years ago. Lord Eldon would have considered Mr. Balfour a Jacobin, Peel would have hardly held him a Conservative, and Lord Palmerston, who in all but in name was a Conservative, would, we may suspect, not have offered him a place in any of Palmerston's cabinets. But if the Conservatism of to-day is unlike the Toryism of 1880 or the Conservatism of fifty years ago, it is equally clear that the Liberals of 1895 are unlike the Whigs of 1830 or the Liberals of 1860. It was no accident or mere freak of fortune which compelled John Bright to end his political career as the honored supporter of a Conservative ministry. Of the differences between modern Conservatism and the Toryism or Conservatism of former times I may, with your permission, say something in a future letter. All my present contention is, that modern Conservatism is in England, at the present moment, a stronger force than modern Liberalism. Gladstonians, at any rate, who delight in calling their opponents Tories, are precluded from maintaining that the victory of their opponents is not a triumph of Conservatism.

These are some of the conclusions suggested to a Unionist by the result of the general elections; they are conclusions to which I know neither English Liberals nor the *Nation* will assent. Their importance, however, lies not in their truth, but in their being believed to be true by members of a party who for the moment control the destinies of England. I do not profess to write with impartiality. One of the great evils of party contests is, that they render the impartial judgment of public affairs by men interested in the result of a conflict all but impossible. He who undertakes to comment upon the current course of events ought to do his best to write with fairness. This duty I trust I have performed, but a critic who knows himself to be subject to a bias ought to let the existence of that bias be

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known. I write as a strong Unionist; my sole object is to let the readers of the *Nation* know the effect which the general election has upon the minds of Unionists. AN OBSERVER.

Correspondence.

SECRETARY MORTON.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Anent the third-term discussion, the *Nation* of August 22 says of the President: "The people turn to him for further service because they are unable to find as a successor any one who gives assurance that, if elected to the Presidency, he would guard the public interests in the same fearless and effective manner as Mr. Cleveland has done." The successor to Mr. Cleveland is not far to seek. J. Sterling Morton possesses in an equal degree every quality which has made the President strong in the public confidence.

There has been no more staunch upholder of the public credit than Mr. Morton. He was among the very first of our public men to stem the "16 to 1" free-silver tide in language so clear and incisive as to leave no doubt about its meaning. With him, "sound money" is that in which the civilized world does business—gold or its equivalent. He has shown administrative ability of the highest order in the conduct of the Agricultural Department. While, with a wise economy, saving to the Treasury over $1,000,000 returned to it from the appropriations, the value and efficiency of the department have been greatly increased. No branch of the Government has, in the interests of the people, been more carefully guarded or more intelligently directed. This is recognized by men of all parties. The toiling millions, whether in the workshop or on the farm, have in him a faithful and fearless friend, too honest to deceive them with false hopes. Labor and capital, each needing the aid of the other, friends, not foes, have in him a defender and ally. A graduate of Union College, he is a man of broad and generous culture, and at the same time he is, like Lincoln, a plain man of the people, easily accessible and of gracious manner. Indeed, he possesses many of Lincoln's characteristics which so endeared him to his fellow-countrymen. The author of Arbor Day, now so generally observed, of which he is justly proud, he is widely and honorably known. In the purity of his public and private life he is above reproach.

A representative Democrat, Mr. Morton stands for a wise economy in administration, for commercial freedom in a tariff for revenue only, graduated by the actual needs of the Government; for honest money as opposed to any scheme for tampering with the standard of value; for a pure civil service depending upon merit. Should the Democratic masses, as in the case of Mr. Cleveland, summon him to the leadership of the party, his candidacy would inspire confidence in business men everywhere, draw to its support the most intelligent and thoughtful of our people—in the majority it is believed—East, West, North, and South; and should he be elected to the Presidency, it is safe to say that in high purpose and patriotic devotion his administration would be equal to that of any of his predecessors. G. M.

MINNEAPOLIS, MINN., August 27, 1895.

POST-OFFICE RECEIPTS AT CLEVELAND.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the issue of the *Nation* of August 29, I find an interesting article evidencing the improved condition of business throughout the country. You say that the increase in receipts for the month of July over the same month last year in the Chicago post-office is 20 per cent., Boston 15 per cent., St. Louis 18 per cent., Brooklyn, Buffalo, and San Francisco 20 per cent. It might interest you to know that the increase in this office for the same month was 26.86 per cent., which is, I believe, the largest increase shown in any office in the country.—Yours very truly,

JOHN C. HUTCHINS, Postmaster.

CLEVELAND, OHIO, August 31, 1895.

THE MIDDLE AGES AND THE RENAISSANCE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The principle of intellectual and literary continuity, to which reference is made in the review of Courthope's 'History of English Poetry' in your issue of August 29, will constitute the leading thought of the forthcoming work by Prof. Stein of Bern on 'Die Philosophie im Zeitalter der Renaissance.' From the introductory considerations published by him in the *Rundschau* for June, it is evident that Prof. Stein rejects the idea of the Middle Ages as an intellectual vacuum, as a cessation of the progress of civilization, and consequently of the Renaissance as a sudden reawakening of the spirit of antiquity from a lethargy of many centuries. His purpose is to show that continuous development is the fundamental principle of the history of the human intellect.

Yours truly, A. L.

YPSILANTI, MICH., August 31, 1895.

MISINFORMATION ABOUT RUSSIA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In view of the fact that the name of "Prof. E. Borges" has come before the public again in the daily press, it may not seem out of place or too late to make a few comments on his peculiar article, printed in the June number of *Harper's Magazine*. It was evident throughout that article that the writer was entirely ignorant of his subject. But I must confine myself to a few specific points.

Having been given to understand that "Prof. Borges" was connected with the St. Petersburg Lyceum, I made inquiries. I am informed from the capital that no such person is known there. Had he ever been in Russia even, he would hardly have asserted that Count L. N. Tolstoy, the author, holds, or ever has held, the post of "Secretary of Public Education." Count Dmitri Tolstoy was Minister of Public Education for a time, but was dropped in 1881, about Easter tide. Hence the jesting Easter greeting that year ran: "Khristos voskrese, Tolstoy iskrese!" (Christ is arisen, Tolstoy has disappeared), in place of the customary: "Khristos voskrese," and the reply: "Vo istinny voskrese" (He is risen indeed.) When Count Dmitry Tolstoy died, in the spring of 1889, he was Minister of the Interior. I described his funeral, at the time, in your columns. I saw it.

"Prof. Borges" asserts the "intimate friendship of the Czar [Alexander III.] and the famous painter Verestchagin." Of this, also, nothing is known in Russia.

More important than either of these errors is the gross misinformation contained in the paragraph which relates to the marriage and coronation of the Emperor Nicholas II. I quote only the conclusion of that paragraph: "Even the Emperor may be single, but he cannot be crowned as a bachelor. Simultaneously with his coronation the Czar receives his consecration as the supreme head of the Greek Church, and as such he must be a married man, according to the dogmatic law, 'A priest shall be the mate of a woman.'" If "Prof. Borges's" statements were founded on fact, the Emperor need not have been married until next spring, just before the coronation. The wedding took place immediately after the death of the late Alexander III., at his express request. It was also advisable for the peace and prosperity of the country, which, as in other monarchical lands, depends greatly on the existence of a direct heir to the throne. Moreover, as an editorial in the leading newspaper of St. Petersburg expressed it, at the time:

"For more than a century past the Russian nation has been accustomed to see the new Emperor a married man when he ascended the throne. An unmarried man is considered as an incomplete man, in the life of the common people. This very sound and profound view, which has been held by the populace from time immemorial, applies even more forcibly, if we may be permitted so to express ourselves, to the Emperor, as the leading Russian man, the representative of his people, the independent head of so great a country. Truly does the wisdom of the common people assert that the man is the head, the woman the soul. . . . The marriage of the Emperor is a matter-of-fact necessity for his fatherland, etc."

The Emperor is anointed at his coronation in token of his consecration to his lofty office and duties. But he is not a priest, any more than is the layman or the woman who receives anointment on the eve of one or all the twelve great annual festivals of the Russian Church. Therefore St. Paul's words, which enjoin that a minister of God shall be "the husband of one wife," and which are so construed in the Russian Church that priests must be married before they can be ordained, and can never have a second wife, in no sense apply to the Emperor. It is not imperatively necessary that he should be married before he is crowned. My authority for this statement is an educated clever arch-priest, connected with a Government institute, who assuredly not only knows the exact truth, but would be apt to claim all that is truthfully possible for the person on whom his position depends.

The Emperor is not "the supreme head of the Greek Church." Jesus Christ is the head of "the Holy Catholic Church of the East," which is the official title of that Church. The falsehood that the Emperor is its head is being so constantly repeated that I quote in full my authority for contradicting it. I have before me a copy of the Office for the Reception into the Russian Church of all converts from other Christian churches. The form is invariable, for a future Empress or for the humblest of her subjects. It is printed in Church Slavic, which bears about the same relation to modern Russian as Chaucer's English and black-letter script bear to modern English. Evidently, it is even more inaccessible to "Prof. Borges" than modern Russian! One of the questions put by the bishop or priest to the candidate for admission, in case that candidate has been a member of the Roman Catholic Church, is as follows: "Dost thou renounce the false belief that it is wrong to acknowledge Our Lord

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Jesus Christ as the head of the universal Church; and that the head of the body of Christ, that is to say, of the universal church, can be a man, to wit, the Bishop of Rome?" The candidate replies: "I renounce it." And again: "Dost thou believe and confess that the foundation, head, highpriest, and chief pastor of the Holy, *Pravoslávnaya* [right-glorious] Catholic Church is Our Lord Jesus Christ, and that all bishops, pastors, and instructors for the government of the Church are appointed by Him? . . ." Answer: "I believe and confess."

Many other interesting things—among them, the true use of images—are plainly set forth in this Office of Reception, which is, practically, a confession of faith and rule of life.—Very truly yours, ISABEL F. HAPGOOD.

BELMAR, NEW JERSEY, August 30, 1895.

Notes.

GEORGE BELL & SONS, London, will publish by subscription 'Richard Cosway, R.A., and his Companions: English Miniaturists of the Eighteenth Century,' by George C. Williamson, D. Lit., with a number of illustrations, a list of pictures exhibited by these artists, etc. The ordinary edition will consist of 350 copies. Dr. Williamson desires to make the list of Cosway's works known to exist as full and accurate as possible, and would gladly acquire descriptions and photographs of them, either by gift or by purchase. His address is The Mount, Guildford, Surrey, England.

Another subscription work is 'Picturesque Worcester (Mass.),' announced for publication in the fall by W. F. Adams & Co., Springfield, in three volumes. The half-tone scenic illustrations have been made under the supervision of the well known wood-engraver Elbridge Kingsley, and of Frederick Knab, and will number nearly 2,500, all original.

Fully illustrated, too, will be 'Beautiful Houses,' by Louis H. Gibson, which T. Y. Crowell & Co. have nearly ready.

D. Appleton & Co.'s fall announcements embrace 'The Beginnings of Writing,' by Walter James Hoffman, D.D., of the Bureau of American Ethnology; White's 'Natural History of Selborne,' in two volumes, with an introduction by John Burroughs and many illustrations; an *édition de luxe* of 'Uncle Remus, his Songs and his Sayings,' with 112 illustrations by A. B. Frost; Hall Caine's 'The Manxman,' in two volumes, with forty gelatine plates of the Isle of Man; 'Westminster Abbey,' by Miss Bradley, daughter of Dean Bradley, elaborately illustrated; an illustrated work on 'The Music of the Modern World,' edited by Anton Seidl, with the aid of specialists; a work on 'Oriental Porcelains,' by Dr. S. W. Bushell, the illustrations being in colors from the collection of the late W. T. Walters of Baltimore; 'Genius and Degeneration,' by Dr. William Hirsch; 'Our Juvenile Offenders,' by Douglas Morrison; 'General Sherman,' by Gen. M. F. Force; 'The Story of the Indian,' by George Bird Grinnell; 'The Intellectual Rise of Electricity,' by Park Benjamin; and a new revised and rewritten edition of Prof. C. A. Young's 'The Sun.'

Macmillan & Co. have in preparation 'The Economic History of Virginia in the Seventeenth Century,' by Philip A. Bruce, corresponding secretary of the Virginia Historical Society. "Servants and Slaves" will form the subject of one of the chapters.

'From Far Formosa: The Island, Its People and Missions,' by George Leslie Mackay, D.D., will be published in November by Fleming H. Revell Co., with maps and illustrations.

George H. Richmond & Co., No. 12 East Fifteenth Street, promise for next month a theatrical story, 'Dolly Dillenbeck,' by James L. Ford, author of the pungent 'Literary Shop.'

Mr. J. G. Bourinot, whose work as an expounder of the Constitution of the Dominion of Canada is well known, has prepared a manual entitled 'How Canada Is Governed' (Toronto: The Copp, Clark Co.). The book contains accounts of the political institutions of the provinces and municipalities, as well as of the Dominion, with an historical outline of their origin and development, and has a map and illustrations of some of the public buildings. It will be found convenient as a book of reference, but appears to be better adapted to the requirements of the average Canadian citizen than to those of students of politics.

The great work on 'Taxation in England' by Dowell was almost wholly confined to the national and imperial system, and the history of local taxation and finance has not received much attention. An essay on this subject by Mr. Inglis Palgrave appeared in 1871, but since that time nothing of importance in this direction has been attempted. The Local Government Board, however, has been for many years collecting and arranging materials, and this matter has now been utilized by Mr. G. H. Blunden in the preparation of an essay entitled 'Local Taxation and Finance' (Charles Scribner's Sons). The facts dealt with are of a sufficiently dry and repellent character; but, from the point of view of the economist, the investigation may be said to be enlivened by discussions of the incidence of rates, the taxation of ground values, and the theory of betterments.

'Stock Exchange Values' (London: Effingham Wilson) is a compilation of the prices of innumerable securities in the London market for the decade 1885-'95, prepared by the firm of F. C. Mathieson & Sons. Mr. S. F. Van Oss, the author of 'American Railroads as Investments,' contributes an introduction with statistics and diagrams. This introduction consists of a review of the general history of British business for the last ten years, including such financial events in foreign countries as have had important effects. Mr. Van Oss is a writer of ability, and he handles a difficult subject with skill as well as vivacity.

Under the title 'The Wealth of Labor' (Baker & Taylor Co.), Mr. Frank Loomis Palmer develops the beauties of protection from an unusual standpoint. He maintains—with very great obscurity of expression, it must be said—that in the exchange of goods the profit to the different parties may be very unequal, and that the party whose goods are most cheaply produced gains the least by the transaction. This is especially the case where natural advantages, or what Mr. Palmer calls gratuities, are involved, and hence the true protective principle is concerned only with exported products. A nation should devote itself, therefore, to keeping up the price of its exports, or at least of those in the production of which it has a clear advantage over foreign countries. It follows from this that restrictions should be imposed on the most productive industries, and labor be compelled to resort to those which are less so. The best way of accomplishing this appears to be by putting duties on exports. It will keep foreigners from getting our good things away from us, and compel them to stop trading or to accept commodities in the production of which we have no advantage over them. There is much force in Mr. Palmer's argument; but we fear that he will need to labor a long time before he induces our protected interests to consent to replace duties on foreign goods by duties on our own.

The University of Chicago Press issues a translation of Prof. Gustav Cohn's 'System der Finanzwissenschaft' made by Dr. T. B. Veblen, under the title 'The Science of Finance.' Prof. Cohn certifies, on reading the proof-sheets, that the translation is excellent, so that any complaint that we might feel disposed to make of the crabbedness of the style would apply only to the German of the original. The third book, which deals with the German tax legislation of the present time, has been omitted, inasmuch as, during the six years that have elapsed since its publication, so many changes in the law have taken place as to have made it useless except as history.

'Statistik und Gesellschaftslehre' (Statistics and Sociology) is the title of a work by G. von Mayr, the first volume of which, treating of "Theoretical Statistics" (Freiburg and Leipzig: Mohr), has just appeared. This volume is divided into five sections, beginning with a general introduction, followed by a discussion of the basis of statistical science, the methods, technics, administration, and history of statistics. To each section is added an excellent bibliography of the special subject considered, and reference to the entire contents is facilitated by a full index. The author maintains that sociological studies, unless founded upon statistical observations, are apt to lead to uncertain and illusory results, which are of no practical or scientific value and often give rise to vague speculations and false generalizations. This is a point, however, which he reserves for more thorough examination in a second and concluding volume under the head of "Practical Statistics, or Exact Sociology."

A valuable and very readable contribution to the recent history of ethics is Dr. Alexander Tille's volume, 'Von Darwin bis Nietzsche' (Leipzig: Naumann), in which an attempt is made to determine the influence of evolution in natural science upon the development of moral conceptions and their application to the social life of the individual and the race. Evolutional ethics, our author thinks, finds its clearest and most complete expression in Friedrich Nietzsche's 'Also sprach Zarathustra,' and he has therefore set this work as the limit of his present investigations. Full justice is done to the labors of Huxley, Spencer, and other English scholars in this province of research. The book needs an index. In Germany, at least, this lack is usually due to false economy on the part of the publisher, and is often as keenly regretted by the author as by the reader.

The same Leipzig publisher has just issued the first volume of 'Das Leben Friedrich Nietzsches,' by his sister Elizabeth Förster-Nietzsche. Although somewhat hobby-horsical, as men of intense convictions are apt to be, Nietzsche was a brilliant thinker and an exceedingly original character. His outward career was uneventful, but his intellectual life was peculiarly rich and rare. The fact that Dr. Max Nordau selected him as one of the most prominent of modern "degenerates," rivalling Richard Wagner and Henrik Ibsen as specimens of neurological deterioration and decay, ought to invest his biography, at least, with a psycho-pathological interest. In this record of his early life the reader will look in vain for symptoms of incipient imbecility.

A number of reprints and new editions have

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accumulated on our table. Prof. Hinsdale has revised to date and extensively recast his 'American Government, State and National' (Chicago: The Werner Co.), but it seems strange that Bryce's 'American Commonwealth' should not have been singled out for recommendation, and should not appear among the references to works in which the American and the English systems are contrasted. From Macmillan we have the second volume of the translation of Adolf Holm's 'History of Greece,' concerning which work we have already expressed our judgment; and two more volumes in Dent's charming edition of Defoe, viz., 'Journal of the Plague Year' and 'Captain Singleton.' The editor, Mr. G. A. Aitken, examines, in his introduction to the Journal, the sources of Defoe's information about the visitation, which he could have remembered only as a boy of six, and adds an appendix of extracts from contemporary narratives about the Plague. In the introduction to 'Captain Singleton,' he follows Prof. Minto's discussion of Defoe's alleged anticipation of recent discoveries in Central Africa. Copeland & Day, Boston, have made a pretty brochure of Walter Pater's 'The Child in the House,' and have limited the output to 350 copies. D. Appleton & Co. send us the current issues of their well-known 'General Guide to the United States and Canada,' 'Canadian Guide-Book' (now compacted into a single volume), and 'Dictionary of New York and its Vicinity' (the "vicinity" has not always been carefully attended to in the revision).

Paul Langhans's 'Kleiner Handelsatlas' (Gotha: Justus Perthes; New York: Westermann) is designed for use in schools and for self-culture, and will work efficiently to both ends. It shows the distribution of the world's raw products, the routes of commerce, etc., in a great variety of ways, with especial reference to European and to German trade. The little side-map in sheet Nos. 2 and 3 errs in coloring the United States as having the double standard of value; and Chili, too, should now be colored yellow to please the gold-bugs and to square with the facts. The same New York firm brings us the fourth part of the Spruner-Sieglin 'Atlas Antiquus,' and Parts 5 and 6 of the second volume of Ritter's 'Geographisch-Statisches Lexikon' in the eighth edition. The letter O is here entered upon.

The highly esteemed popular 'Dictionnaire Général de la Langue Française' of Hatzfeld, Darmesteter & Thomas (Paris: Ch. Delagrave) reaches *hystérotomie* in the 16th fascicule.

We make tardy mention of M. Salomon Reinach's review of M. P. Foucart's "Recherches sur l'origine et la nature des Mystères d'Éleusis," which appeared in the *Revue Critique* of July 15. M. Foucart holds that the worship of Isis and Osiris, as well as the art of agriculture, was introduced into Greece by Egyptian colonists about the seventeenth century B. C., and he insists on the likeness between Isis and Demeter. A thousand years later the Greeks borrowed from Egypt the eschatology contained in the 'Book of the Dead,' and developed it into the Eleusinian mysteries. M. Reinach seems willing to admit this later Egyptian influence, though, as an archæologist, he protests against the assertion that the earliest civilization of Greece was derived from Egypt. He believes it to have sprung from European sources, although its development was, no doubt, modified by Oriental influence. The earliest civilization of Greece has been revealed by the archæology which goes by the name of "prehistoric," and which to-day, M. Reinach says, lends a hand to history. He adds, a little ruefully: "Je devrais peut-être dire qu'elle la lui tend, et que l'histoire n'est pas bien empressée de la prendre; je crains que M. Foucart ne me contredise pas là-dessus."

The 'Bibliographie de l'année 1894,' published by the *Annales de Geographie*, is a catalogue of nearly sixteen hundred geographical works and articles in scientific journals, each entry accompanied in most instances by a short but useful descriptive note. No attempt has been made to record all the geographical literature of the year—mere books of travel are rarely included—but only works of importance either from their subject or their manner of treatment. It is larger by nearly a hundred pages than the similar publication of last year, the chief increase being in works on Africa and America.

Americans on their travels have had good reason to know the name of Baedeker. These will hear, not without interest, that, in a case lately tried before Lord Russell, the Chief Justice of England, and a jury, a verdict for £50 damages was given against Baedeker. The suit was brought by an hotel-keeper at Jaffa named Howard, alias Award; or, perhaps, more correctly, Award, alias Howard. The plaintiff does not seem to have had "all the blood of all the Howards" in him, for he was born at Beirut, in Syria, of a Maltese father and a mother from Mount Lebanon. Baedeker had stated of him that he was an Arab; that his hotel was a second-class one; and that he was a man with whom his guests should make a bargain. The jury were of opinion that, although the statements were honestly made, they were "not substantially correct."

The authorities of the Public Record Office, London, have made arrangements for the continuance of the preparation of the calendars of Colonial Papers, hitherto so admirably carried on by the late Mr. Noel Sainsbury of the Public Record Office. The Hon. John William Fortescue, a younger son of Earl Fortescue, will henceforth be charged with this undertaking. Mr. Fortescue has for some time past been interesting himself in colonial history, and, within the last two years, has published, in *Macmillan's Magazine*, papers upon the Expedition of Penn and Venables to Jamaica in 1655, and upon other West Indian subjects. He cannot, of course, bring to the task the vast amount of information his predecessor had accumulated in the course of a long lifetime, but, from what we have heard of Mr. Fortescue, there is reason to believe that his heart will be very much in his work. Being now only thirty-six, he has the prospect of long usefulness before him. Mr. Fortescue was at one time Private Secretary at Barbados to Gov. Sir William Robinson of the then Windward Islands, in the West Indies.

Mr. Arthur Prestwood Lucas, B.A., of the Colonial Office, London, who has for some years past been bringing out a series of historical-geographical works upon the British colonies, through the Clarendon Press, Oxford, is now engaged upon a volume dealing with South Africa.

Thanks to the practical efforts of some American educators (the "International Institute for Girls in Spain," incorporated by the Commonwealth of Massachusetts and placed at San Sebastian, on the Bay of Biscay), the University of Madrid has fallen into line with the general movement for the higher education of women. Two graduates of this Spanish-American School for Girls, having taken their B.A. degree (1894) at the Government Institute for Boys at San Sebastian, continued their studies in the Madrid University course of philosophy and fine arts, for their M.A. degree, taken this summer at the regular term of the University in Madrid. The grades given at the examinations, which extend over a week, are three—*aprobado*, *bueno*, *sobresaliente*. In every examination the young women received "sobresaliente" and passed "gloriosamente." A detail of this latest episode in current educational history shows that the spirit of chivalry is not extinct in modern Spain: the University has 1,000 male students, some of whose number have testified their approbation of their new fellows by making a pathway of their caps before the girls, and chanting in line on the staircase of the University library the Royal March, as the pair walked by.

The Vienna Society for Providing Academic Lectures for Women has just issued a circular containing the syllabus for 1895-96, which embraces the whole range of science and art, including the literary study of modern languages. While most of the lecturers are young *Universitäts-Docenten*, a prominent painter will lecture on the history of art, and two members of the Hoftheater are to give instruction in elocution and recitation. We are also informed that the University of Prague has granted to women permission to attend its lectures as *ausserordentliche Zuhörer* (or what certain of our colleges call "hearers"), and although this privilege carries with it no academic status, it is an entering wedge of opportunity which time may be trusted to drive home.

—Among the documents of interest now being shown to American visitors to the Public Record Office, London, is a hitherto unpublished letter from Benjamin Franklin to the Earl of Shelburne. It was recently discovered among papers in the Record Office connected with the Department of Foreign Affairs. It runs thus:

PASSY, March 22, 1782.

Lord Cholmondeley having kindly offered to take a Letter from me to Your Lordship I embrace the Opportunity of assuring the continuance of my ancient Respect for your Talents and Virtues, and of congratulating you upon the returning good Disposition of your Country in favour of America, which appears in the late Resolution of the Commons. I am persuaded it will have good effects. I hope it will tend to produce a general Peace, which I am persuaded Your Lordship, with all good Men, desires, which I wish to see before I die, and to which I shall with infinite Pleasure, contribute everything in my Power. Your friends the Abbé Morellet and Madam Helvetius are well. You have made the latter very happy by your kind present of Gooseberry Bushes which arriv'd in five days, and in excellent order. With great and sincere Esteem, I have the honour to be,

My Lord,

Your Lordship's Most Obedient and most humble servant,

B. FRANKLIN.

LORD SHELBURNE.

—In 1848, the Hakluyt Society, London, published a reprint of 'The Discoverie of the Large, Rich, and Bewtiful Empire of Guiana, . . . Performed in the yeare 1595 by Sir W. Ralegh, Knight, Captain of Her Maiesties Guard, &c., &c.' The Hakluyt edition of this work was admirably edited by that distinguished traveller the late Sir Robert Schomburgk, who, in 1841, as the Queen of England's Commissioner to survey the boundaries of British Guiana, explored the Delta of the Orinoco. In his Introduction to the work Sir Robert says (p. lxv): "The general belief that during Ralegh's lifetime only one edition of his Voyage was separately published is erroneous, as,

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on a recent comparison of two copies bearing the date of 1596, we have observed some trifling typographical differences." This statement has been confirmed by the recent acquisition by the British Museum of a copy of the second edition. Both editions appeared in 1596, "imprinted at London by Robert Robinson." The edition published by the Hakluyt Society is that which, at the Museum, bears the press number C. 32, g. 25. The reference to the new acquisition is C. 32, c. 10. A correspondent of the *Nation*, at present in London, says that he has compared the two editions now in the Museum, and finds that they are two distinct publications. At the same time, he thinks that there must have been three, rather than only two, editions of the 'Discoverie,' for the differences between the two copies in the Museum are not identical with those which Schomburgk gives in his note (1) on p. lxv. of his Introduction. It is worth mentioning that, a year or two after the Hakluyt edition appeared, the Museum authorities acquired a manuscript map of Guiana, which is attributed by Mr. Cooke, an expert in such matters, to 1595, and is now classed as Sir Walter Raleigh's map of Guiana. The press number of this chart is 17.940a of the "Additional" classification. Schomburgk appears to have been unaware of the existence of this map; at all events, he does not mention it. It is among those treasures of the Museum that have lately been put out in glass cases, in a locked room, for the edification of the savants attending the Geographical Congress in London. In 1892 a Hamburg firm published a reproduction of this map of Guiana in connection with the celebration of the discovery of America.

—The Selden Society's edition of 'The Mirror of Justices' has already received mention in these columns. It remains only to say that Prof. Maitland's Introduction is a new proof of his comprehensive learning and acute suggestiveness; and that his unwillingness to propose a positive solution leaves the question of this book's authorship and motive likely to become the permanent riddle of English legal history. As relevant circumstances, hardly brought out, however, by Prof. Maitland, it may, perhaps, be noted (1) that to "deliberately state as law what he knew was not law" (p. xxxvii.) is not, especially in that age, as significant as it seems; for that is exactly what the judge Bracton himself did, even on points where in other places he recounts the actual practice; (2) that, as indicated in Liebermann's 'Consiliatio Cnuti' (pp. xiii., 1), the local customs of England were for a long time very varied (as in Germany), and both the "law" and the "abuses" of the 'Mirror's' author may often represent his experience, though not the practice of some or all of the king's judges, who themselves could hardly have been entirely uniform in rulings at that time. The Selden Society's 'Select Pleas in the Court of Admiralty' (edited by Reginald D. Marsden), mainly covering the earliest period of extant regular records, 1527-1545, has a special interest in the facilities which it begins to supply for the study of the history of our commercial law. It is much to be regretted that Goldschmidt's masterly 'Handelsrechtsgeschichte' has not been done into English to reveal to our lawyers the complicated and fascinating past of our commercial legal ideas. The bills of debt on pp. 55, 72, 93, serve as apt illustrations of Goldschmidt's theory that the bill of exchange is historically an outgrowth in part of the old bottomry bond; we here in the 1500s see the process going on before our eyes. Another interesting thing is the form of the old bill of lading, which often, as in older Asiatic commerce, is written by the consignor in the first person, "I have delivered, etc." (pp. 61, 126).

—We must not fail to call attention to the rich treat offered in the next few years by the Selden Society. Besides the 'Bracton and Azo' and 'Coroners' Rolls, H. III. to H. V.,' they now announce: Earliest Records of the Equitable Jurisdiction of the Court of Chancery (nearly ready); Select Admiralty Pleas, vol. ii. (nearly ready); Select Pleas from the Court of Requests, vol. i., H. VII., and H. VIII. (in preparation); Forest Plea Rolls; Memoranda of the Court of Exchequer; Plea Rolls of the Jewish Exchequer; Pleas of the Star Chamber; Pleas of Manorial Courts, vol. ii.; Civil Pleas, vol. ii.; Conveyancing Precedents of the 1200s; a book of precedents of pleading of the same time; and the History of the Register of Original Writs.

—A toothsome dish has, within a few weeks, been served up for the refection of faddomaniacs. M. Louis Martin, encouraged by the success of his 'Angleterre et la Franc-Maçonnerie,' has aimed to astonish the nations by answering in the affirmative the question which forms the title of a book he has lately issued, 'L'Anglais est-il un Juif?' Before grappling with his new theme, however, he once more relieves himself on the subject of his former effusion. According to his reading of history, Freemasonry had its origin, at least in its modern form, in London, about 1717, was imported to the Continent, and bore its first fruits, as regarded his own countrymen, in the loss, by France, of possessions in India and Canada. Its subsequent effects, he maintains, are seen in the French Revolution, the emancipation of the Jews, the *cordiale entente*, the reign of Napoleon III., "the present anglolatrous Republic," and what not; English Protestants and French Huguenots utilizing and exploiting it for their own ends. France, he estimates, furnishes only 26,500 Freemasons, while England has 287,100, and the United States, 569,600. But not only thus is heirship to perdition established for the Anglo-Saxon race. Another proof that we are speeding to the pit is discovered in the fact that we are Hebrews. To what the Anglo-Israelite Society has made out, to its satisfaction, on this point, M. Martin seems to attach no particular value. He takes his stand on the infallible ground of psychology. Jews and Anglo-Saxons, as, but for the conceit of invincible obtuseness, we should not hesitate to acknowledge, exhibit, unmistakably, a family likeness, in being equally distinguished by want of conscience and sense of responsibility, perfidy, deceitfulness of bearing, avarice, stupidity, cowardice, pride, ferocity, and so on. Except in popular nomenclature and other non-essentials, the two races are, consequently, identical. Q. E. D.

—The diggings at Delphi have brought to light a fourth sacred hymn, some account of which was given to the Académie des Inscriptions et Belles-Lettres, at its session of August 9, by M. Henri Weil. The hymn is in honor of Dionysos, and dates from the last third of the fourth century before our era. This makes it of an earlier date than the pieces already discovered, which it surpasses also in historical interest, although it is not accompanied by musical notation. The first strophes turn on the legend of the god; the rest bear upon historical events then going on. Other epigraphic documents recently discovered show that the work of rebuilding the temple of Delphi proceeded throughout the whole of the fourth century. The present discovery shows that these works received a lively impulse after the close of the sacred war against the Phocians, who had pillaged the treasuries of the temple. The poet looks forward to the day when there shall rise on the desecrated site a new temple, resplendent with gold, which shall be thenceforth safe from profanation, and he felicitates the generation that shall accomplish this pious work. Speaking as the mouthpiece of the priests of Delphi and of the Amphictyonic Council, which was directed at that time by the Macedonian princes, he extols the panhellenic idea and the policy of the new chiefs of Greece. The *Bulletin de Correspondance Hellénique* will publish the text of the pæan with notes and supplements by M. Weil.

—At the session of the Académie des Inscriptions et Belles-Lettres of July 5, M. Bréal read a paper of more than ordinary interest on the different divinities of ancient Italy. It has been commonly held that the Romans, when they were brought into contact with the Greeks, identified their own divinities with the Hellenic gods. Mars, for instance, was regarded as identical with Ares, Minerva with Athene, and so on. M. Bréal, however, believes that this identification was of much earlier date, and that it was made by the Etruscans. The names of Mars and Minerva are not Latin, but Etruscan. This is also true of Neptune, whose name, under the form "Nephtil," is found on a mirror. The Latin language is an Indo-European tongue—there can be no doubt about that; but because the language is Aryan it does not follow that the religion was also Aryan—at any rate, the whole of it. One only needs to glance at the religions of Europe to see that this is so. The Etruscan religion has, besides, left other traces among the Romans, and, through them, among the French. For example, the name of the gens Aurelia, to which belonged the Emperor Marcus Aurelius, is derived from the word "usil"=the sun. This name has been naturalized in France in the name of the city of Orléans, and from France it has crossed the Atlantic "pour baptiser l'un des États de la république américaine." The closer one looks into the question, the more one perceives that civilization is the work of many collaborators. The language of these old peoples, though apparently extinct, is not wholly dead; it reappears at intervals in some mythological allusion, or in some name of a place or of a man. In the discussion which followed M. Bréal's reading, M. d'Arbois de Jubainville said that he believed that the general principles laid down by M. Bréal could hardly be contested. The religious doctrines of the Romans contained elements, borrowed from the Etruscans, which are not Indo-European; such as the doctrine that, in the art of augury, the left and not the right is of good omen. But there are still details which he thought might be disputed. The word "usil," for instance, and the name of the Aurelii, primitively Auselii, seem to come from the same root as the Latin *aurora*, the origin of which appears to be Indo-European.

A RUSSIAN WOMAN.

Sónia Kovalévsky: Her Recollections of Childhood. Translated from the Russian by Isabel F. Hapgood, with a Biography by Anna Carlotta, Duchess of Cajanello, translated from the Swedish by A. M. Clive Bayley, and a Biographical Note by Lily Wolff.

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sohn. New York: The Century Co. 8vo, pp. 318. 1895.

Sonia Kovalevsky: Biography and Autobiography. I. Memoir. By A. C. Leffler (Edgren), Duchessa di Cajanello. II. Reminiscences of Childhood, written by herself. Translated into English by Louise von Cassell. With portraits. Macmillan. 12mo, pp. 317. 1895.

MR. GLADSTONE is right in saying that the biography of Sonia Kovalevsky is a book of extraordinary interest. (How wrong he is in his further comment upon it, we shall point out further on.) There is nothing in the world more interesting than to obtain fresh insight into the real nature of a human soul; and when a biography is of an intimate nature and is written with masterly strokes, it is a human document which one must be very thankful for. In this case there is the additional feature that the character described is that of a woman of extraordinary intellectual powers and of extraordinary richness and force of character.

All criticism, whether of persons or of books, is, as Jules Lemaître has pointed out, necessarily subjective in its character, whatever may be the critical principles which its author professes to abide by. It is always essential that we should be able to make allowance for the writer's point of view, and hence it would not be a bad plan if every important biography were preceded by the biography of its author. This volume has that advantage; the life of the Duchess of Cajanello, although it comes at the end of the book, the wise reader will turn to first. She, too, was a remarkable woman and led a life full of interest. Anna Carlotta Leffler was the sister of the distinguished Swedish mathematician, Mittag-Leffler, and the only daughter of a Swedish rector. She inherited from her mother literary tendencies which showed themselves at an early age; when she was six years old she dictated a tale to her older brother which he wrote down, and she was only twenty-three when her play, "The Actress," a precursor of "The Doll's House," was given for an entire season at the Stockholm theatre. No one suspected her to be the author of it; she had, in fact, never been in a theatre more than two or three times in her life, for her parents during her early youth considered theatre-going a luxury, and her own religious convictions forbade her to indulge in such a pleasure often. A few years later a collection of tales entitled 'From Life,' the first book she had published under her own name, obtained an immense success, and from this time she was an admired and a prolific writer. Her home was the meeting-place for the best and the most distinguished literary spirits of the day, and she was herself the gracious and inspiring hostess, who nevertheless gave to the conversation the impress of her own personality. In 1888 she accompanied her brother to the mathematical congress held in Algiers, and upon returning through Italy she met for the first time the Duke of Cajanello, with whom her brother had long been in correspondence—a man who had broken with the prejudices of his class sufficiently to become professor of mathematics at the University of Naples. Her marriage with him was an extremely happy one, and she became again, in Naples, the centre of a brilliant literary circle.

Upon the death of Sonia Kovalevsky, with whom she had lived upon terms of the most intimate friendship, she devoted herself to the writing of her biography, and she had just finished correcting the proof-sheets of this work when she succumbed to a sudden attack of peritonitis. She had lately returned from a summer spent in the island of Capri, she had set her house in order for the winter, and had commenced a new novel which she felt would be her greatest work.

"With the cradle of her child close beside her, she wrote with ever-increasing delight, interrupting herself every now and then to attend to her infant, and again resuming her work without the least impatience. There also stood one who awaited the result of her work with intense sympathy, ready to hear her read the freshly written pages, which she communicated with the calmness induced by the certainty of being comprehended. She trembled at all this happiness, and she was snatched away just as she had tasted its full sweetness."

It is not inappropriate to bear in mind that the biography before us was written by a woman intoxicated with the joys of early married life (her first marriage had not been a happy one), and that allowance may need to be made for an unconscious tendency to exaggerate the indispensableness of such sources of contentment.

The life of Sonia Kovalevsky is depicted for us in two parts. We have already called attention in the *Nation* to the dramatic quality, the keen psychological analysis, and the absorbing interest of her own recollections of her childhood, which were first published in Russian under the title of 'The Raevsky Sisters,' and which appeared a year ago in French in the *Revue de Paris*. The most interesting figure in this tale is not Sonia, but her sister Aniuta, a young girl of brilliant endowments and of charming personality. The life of the two sisters on a remote estate in Russia, Aniuta's first attempts at literary composition, her delight when her tales were accepted by Dostoievsky for his journal, the *Epoch*, at a time when neither of the sisters had ever seen a human being who had written a single line for publication, the meeting with Dostoievsky later in St. Petersburg, and finally the escape of the two sisters from family restrictions which were no longer to be endured—all this must be read in the book itself if one would obtain its true flavor. They were not the only girls who were drawn into the vortex of the new ideas (we quote from the biography):

"The inhabitants of Palibino lived on peacefully and quietly; they grew up and waxed old; they quarrelled and became reconciled to each other; by way of passing the time they bickered about this or that magazine article, about this or that scientific discovery, being all the while thoroughly convinced, nevertheless, that all these questions pertained to another world, wholly distinct from theirs, and that they would never have any direct contact with every-day life. And all of a sudden, no one could say how, signs were revealed close beside them of some strange fermentation which was indisputably drawing nearer and nearer. . . . In the period of time included between the years 1860 and 1870 all the educated classes of Russia were occupied exclusively with one question—the family discord between the old and the young. Ask about whatever noble family you would at that time, you always heard one and the same thing—the parents had quarrelled with the children. And the quarrels had not arisen from any substantial material causes, but simply upon questions of a purely theoretical, abstract character. 'They could not agree about their convictions!' It was only that, but this 'only' sufficed to make children abandon their parents and parents disown their children. . . . An epidemic seemed to seize upon the children, especially the girls—an epidemic of fleeing from the parental roof; the daughter, now of this, now of that, landed proprietor had run away; this one abroad, the other to Petersburg to the 'Nihilists.'"

A common means of escape was to go through the form of marriage with young men devoted to the same ideas which they held sacred; in this manner, as married women, they became free from parental authority, and were enabled to pursue their studies at foreign universities. To Sonia and to her friends at this time this seemed a far higher conception of the marriage state than the commonplace idea of a union for purely selfish happiness. "The sacrifice of self for unselfish purposes was their noble intention, and the development of intellect was the means by which these young people hoped to infuse new vigor into the fatherland they loved so dearly, and to assist its struggle from darkness and oppression into light and freedom." We seem to be living again in the exciting atmosphere of 'Fathers and Sons.' In Sonia's case, however, her father, an irascible and charming old gentleman, immediately forgave her, when there was nothing else to do, and she continued on most affectionate terms with both her parents as long as they lived.

The newly married couple remained for six months in St. Petersburg, where Sonia was introduced by her husband to circles interested in political events, and thus one of her great desires was fulfilled. She was at this time just eighteen, but looked much younger. A friend who made her acquaintance then describes her as having very mobile features; "her eyes especially were exceedingly expressive, sometimes bright and dancing, sometimes dreamy and full of melancholy. She attracted every one by her unconscious charm; old and young, men and women, all were fascinated by her." In the spring of 1869 Sonia and her husband left for Heidelberg, she to study mathematics and he to study geology. After matriculating there, they went to England, where they met the most celebrated persons of the day—George Eliot, Darwin, Spencer, Huxley, and others. In George Eliot's diary occurs this entry:

"Last Sunday we had a visit from an interesting Russian couple, M. and Mme. Kovalévsky. She a sweet, taking creature, with a shy voice and manner. . . . He, amiable and intelligent, studying the natural sciences."

Sonia remained for two years at Heidelberg, and she was then for four years the beloved pupil of the great Weierstrass at Berlin. At the end of this time she took the degree of Doctor of Philosophy at Göttingen, having handed in three important papers instead of the one thesis required, and being excused from the oral examination. Upon returning to Russia, there followed some years of happy family life and of social and literary activity. She felt at this time a certain temporary distaste for mathematics—a not uncommon phenomenon after years of too exclusive devotion to it. Her only child, a daughter, was born soon afterwards, and she had now every prospect of a happy life. But financial difficulties, her husband's absorption in unwise speculations, and especially his falling completely under the influence of an unscrupulous adventurer, broke up this happy home. After heroic efforts to restore her husband to his right mind and to preserve a *modus vivendi*, she decided to make a future for herself and her little daughter entirely by her own endeavor, and she left Russia for Paris. There had before this time been some correspondence with reference to her becoming a lecturer in the University of Stockholm. Prof. Mittag-Leffler, who was greatly interested in the University lately established in his native town, and who also took a warm interest in the woman question, was eager to secure for his University the

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glory of attracting to it the first great woman mathematician. But it was not until after the death of her husband that she finally went to Stockholm, towards the end of the year 1883. Here, also, in the eight years that remained to her of life, her mathematical activity was much broken in upon by her absorption in literary work. In a very interesting letter, she says:

"I understand your surprise at my being able to busy myself simultaneously with literature and mathematics. Many who have never had an opportunity of knowing any more about mathematics confound it with arithmetic, and consider it an arid science. In reality, however, it is a science which requires a great amount of imagination, and one of the leading mathematicians of our century states the case quite correctly when he says that it is impossible to be a mathematician without being a poet in soul. . . . As for myself, all my life I have been unable to decide for which I had the greater inclination, mathematics or literature. As soon as my brain grows wearied of purely abstract speculations, it immediately begins to incline to observations on life, to narrative; and, *vice versa*, everything in life begins to appear insignificant and uninteresting, and only the eternal, immutable laws of science attract me. It is very possible that I might have accomplished more in either of these lines if I had devoted myself exclusively to it; nevertheless, I cannot give up either of them completely."

Her interest in a play which she was engaged in writing in collaboration with Anna Carlotta Leffler, with whom she had come to live on terms of the most intimate friendship, was so great that she neglected until the last moment the mathematical paper with which she was to compete for the Prix Bordin of the French Academy of Sciences, and was finally obliged to work night and day in the effort to get it finished in time. The paper was entitled, "On a Particular Case of the Problem of the Rotation of a Heavy Body Around a Fixed Point," and it involved the first application that had been made of the theta functions to the solution of a physical problem. It received the prize, the award being doubled by the Academy (to five thousand francs) on account of the "quite extraordinary service rendered to mathematical physics by this work." She received the prize in person, and she became the heroine of the hour. Speeches were made in her honor, which she was obliged to acknowledge in like manner; she was interviewed, and received visits all day long. A more brilliant recognition of more brilliant scientific achievement in the most difficult field of intellectual endeavor it has seldom fallen to the lot of any one to receive.

But in the midst of these days of public triumph, the real Sonia Kovalevsky was very miserable. An unfortunate love affair was reaching its climax at the same moment that the brilliant world of Paris lay at her feet, and she cannot give herself up completely to either the joy or the misery of the extraordinary occasion. She is far removed from the shrinking girl of eighteen whom George Eliot knew; she is also far from having had the springs of strong emotion dried up by her scientific pursuits, as happened to Charles Darwin. She is the Russian woman, of stormy passions, of constantly varying moods, of tyrannical nature in friendship as well as in love, making vast demands upon life and contented with nothing that this world can give. Anna Carlotta writes: "Her friendship, though in one way so precious to me and fecund in delight, now began to oppress me by its exactions." "She was continually in want of stimulus. She desired dramatic interests in life, and was ever hungering for high-wrought mental delights." But if at times she thought passionate devotion to some human being the one thing worth living for, at other times she was equally enraptured with the joy of creation in the region of pure mathematics:

"She had been in Paris with Poincaré and other mathematicians. . . . It now seemed to her that nothing was worth living for but science. Everything else—personal happiness, love, love of nature—all was vain. The search for scientific truth was now to her the highest and most desirable of things. Interchange of ideas with her intellectual peers, apart from any personal tie, was the loftiest of all intercourse. The joy of creation was upon her, and now she entered upon one of those brilliant periods of hers, when she was handsome, full of genius, sparkling with wit and humor."

At other times she was again, as she had been during seven years of married life in Russia, the simple, affectionate woman. She writes from near Moscow, where she was staying with a friend, and where she was "always introduced to new acquaintances as Fouzi's mamma": "You cannot imagine what an effect this has. It calls forth in me a perfect crop of genuine virtues, which spring up like mushrooms, and of which you would never suppose me capable." Again she had periods of absolute laziness, when it was an effort to rise from the chair into which she had sunk—when the most trivial novel, the most mechanical fancywork, a few cigarettes, and some tea were all that was necessary to give her for months more happiness, she said, than anything else in life. She had the ways of a charming woman in her graceful acceptance of the aid of men in removing the annoyances of railway travel, but, "notwithstanding all this, there was never a woman who, in the deepest sense of the word, could be more independent of others than she."

Two years after the awarding of the Prix Bordin, she died. Exposure during a journey from Italy to Stockholm in the month of February, 1891, brought on an attack of pleurisy from which she had not courage to rally. She was at this time in a period of great depression, but she had the schemes of several new novels already worked out in her head, and she had just communicated to Mittag-Leffler the idea of a mathematical work which he thought would be the greatest that she had yet written.

What moral are we to draw from the life history of this extraordinary nature—stormy, tempestuous, unregulated, and full of genius? The book has been noticed at much length by the French and the English reviews, and the moral has seemed to the reviewers a very easy one to draw; it is that the highest possible success as a mathematician cannot give happiness to a woman, that she can find that only, and always, in the gratification of her affections. Mr. Gladstone, in his letter to Mr. Fisher Unwin, says: "The two works [in the English edition the biography and the autobiography are in separate volumes] present a great deal of salutary warning." The writer of the biography takes a similar view, saying: "This is one of the strongest objections that can be made to intellectual talent in woman: the exercise of it prevents her from throwing herself entirely into matters of affection." For those who are already in the possession of this belief, this may furnish another occasion for reiterating it; as a deduction from the life of Sonia Kovalevsky nothing could well be more wide of the mark. A calm and simple absorption in the joys of a well-ordered family life is what the critics have in view as the natural antithesis to a mathematical career, but this is by no means the antithesis that Sonia had in mind when she declared her life to be an unhappy one. The man who made her later years so stormy wished to marry her at the beginning of their acquaintance, and she might have had as happy and simple a life from this time on as any woman, and carried on her mathematical researches as well. It was not her mathematics which stood in the way of this, but her own high-strung and passionate temperament, which made her dissatisfied with the kind of love he offered her, and insisted upon such an utter absorption and self-abnegation as would be possible for hardly any mortal. The story of her life is intensely interesting and intensely sad; as a source from which to draw a norm for other women, it has no significance whatever. Do many normal women find it necessary to lead a life of high-wrought passion at the age of thirty-eight? The lesson, if there is a lesson for ordinary natures, is that the well-regulated Anglo-Saxon temperament is more likely to be productive of happiness, in the long run, than the erratic Russian one; extraordinary natures make laws unto themselves, and will not be guided by the experience of other mortals.

The Defence of Plevna, 1877. By William V. Herbert. Longmans, Green & Co. 1895.

PLEVNA, the latest of the world's greater battles, and the decisive battle of a mighty war, is of especial value to the military student as the best example, perhaps, of the attack and defence of intrenchments under comparatively recent conditions. The account of the Turco-Russian war of 1877-8 with which American readers are most familiar is that of F. V. Greene, formerly of the Engineer Corps of the United States Army, who was selected by our Government to witness the war from the Russian side, being officially accredited to Russia as military attaché. He entered on his mission free from prejudice, he had as a foundation the training of our military academy and several years of service in the army; during the campaign he had access to the official plans and orders, and heard them discussed in his presence; he was now at headquarters, now on the skirmish line; and all parts of the field, wherever the most interesting events happened to be occurring, were open to him. He was therefore enabled to take a broad view of the situation at any time, as well as to familiarize himself with the details of every-day events. The work before us, on the other hand, is written by a man of no previous military instruction or training, possessing the strong prejudices of the English against the Russians, almost a mere boy at the breaking out of the war, and occupying a subordinate position in the Turkish army during the battle of Plevna, who accordingly had no means of comprehending at the time the significance of any movement in his immediate vicinity, or its bearing on the general plan of campaign. In spite of these disadvantages, he has given us a stirring account of the various battles for the possession of Plevna and its final investment and surrender, all the more interesting as presenting the Turkish side of the contest.

Mr. Herbert appeared in Constantinople in 1877, at the age of eighteen, with his application to serve in the Turkish army, and, after a short sojourn at a war school, was commissioned second lieutenant, and was soon afterwards ordered to join his company at Widdin,

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where he remained for two or three months, or until the army was concentrated in Plevna. There he remained throughout the four desperate battles for the possession of the city, during the period of investment and until the final surrender. The story of the daily life of the Turkish soldier within the lines of Plevna, of his occupations, amusements, and characteristics, of his privations and sufferings in camp, on the battle-field, and in the hospitals, of the manner in which the intrenchments grew (as they did in our civil war) by the individual need and initiative of the private soldier, and of the skirmishes and battles, is replete with interest. The military operations are sketched in outline only, but with clearness sufficient to render intelligent the particular movements described. The value of the work as a whole rests not on its military science, but on its portrayal of the personal experiences of the author.

After these general remarks we must content ourselves with a few extracts. They show the quality of the description, and are a timely reminder of the horrors of war. The first relates to the second battle of Plevna:

"As to my personal experience, I remember nothing. The actual contact, the psychological moment of such a charge, lasts but a minute or so; and such a lifetime of experience is crowded into it that memory is hopelessly at fault. All I know is that I discharged the six chambers of my revolver, but at whom I have no notion; that my sabre was stained with blood, but with whose I cannot tell; and that suddenly we looked at one another in blank surprise—for the Russians had gone, save those on the ground, and we were among friends, all frantic, breathless, perspiring; many bleeding, the lines broken, the tactical units dissolved; most of us jabbering, shouting, laughing, cursing, dancing about like maniacs. . . . Fifteen or twenty minutes after the first charge the Russians returned. . . . A giant on a horse to match—a colonel, I think—galloped up to me and dealt me a terrific blow from above. . . . It seemed to me as if I had been insensible for weeks, whereas it can only have been an hour, or less. It was still daylight when I awoke. The firing in the neighborhood had ceased, but from afar came the angry growl of the cannonade. . . .

"The sight that met my opening eyes was one so ghastly that I do not care to recall it. . . . Imagine the interior of a low, long, roughly built shed (I do not know whether it had been erected by our troops, or had originally served as a storehouse or barn). Imagine a thick, hot, reeking atmosphere, filled with indescribable odors, enough to sicken you by the very recollection. Imagine some hundreds of men—yourself among them, with a raging thirst devouring you, a burning pain in the face, every particle of strength and vitality gone—lying on the bare boards, with bundles of rags or filthy straw for pillows, many insensible, many dead or dying, many in convulsions, some horribly mutilated, all bleeding, most of them groaning, others screaming, or pitifully whining for a drop of water, in half a dozen languages. Oh, that cry for '*Su!*'—how often have I heard it! . . . Imagine surgeons, with tucked-up shirt-sleeves and bloody hands, giving the first aid; for this was a temporary ambulance in rear of the lines."

In the third battle a little sketch:

"Wednesday, September 12, opened with a hideous, iron-gray, lustreless dawn. A cold wind, like the chill of death, swept over the fields, with their silent or faintly moaning victims of yesterday's slaughter. The rain had ceased, but the uniform gray sky gave promise of another wet day, a promise which it fulfilled faithfully, for after an hour's interruption the rain recommenced and continued till late at night. The ground was a morass. The men shivered in their wet clothes. Biscuits were nibbled for breakfast; those who were lucky enough to possess water shared it with famishing comrades. Notwithstanding orders, many lay down on their stomachs and lapped up the pool-slush, whilst near them corpses were lying in a compound of blood and mud."

Finally, a glimpse at the hospitals during the investment:

"There was a deficiency of drugs: quinine was almost entirely absent. Lint was wanting; garments had to be cut up for bandages, however much clothing of every description was in demand. Linen rags were treasured as priceless. During the last few days of the investment, wounds could not be bound up afresh for want of material. Convalescents had no strengthening food, and numbers succumbed to weakness."

As will have been seen, Mr. Herbert's style is crude at times as if of the camp-fire, but on the whole the interest of his narrative is well sustained. The maps accompanying the text are good and adequate. There is no map of the seat of war in the East, in the Caucasus, but as the events there are merely referred to it was hardly called for. As a military history the book will be useful in supplementing and rounding off its predecessors, but its main attractiveness for the general reader lies in the author's personal experiences in the camp of Plevna.

Off the Mill. By G. F. Browne, B.D., D.C.L., Bishop of Stepney. Macmillan & Co. 1895.

It is probable that since the galleys became obsolete no class of men has been more hard-worked than Anglican bishops of the present day. *Nolo episcopari* used to be considered an insincere phrase, but a new and real meaning has been lent it by the vast increase of routine administrative duties which growth of population has entailed. Neither Philip II. nor Frederick the Great kept at his task more diligently than a conscientious bishop, in a densely peopled diocese, now keeps at his. No wonder that the memory of days "off the mill" is grateful.

The Bishop of Stepney has brought together in book form a number of vacation pieces which have already seen the light in periodicals. There are eleven of them, ranging in time over the last thirty-two years, and all except one, "The Château in the Ardennes," worth reprinting. Seven of the eleven relate to Switzerland and Savoy, three to climbing, two to the exploration of ice-caves, one to topography, and one to local history. They are written with wit and vigor, and ring true to their stimulating subjects. The ascents described are not out of the ordinary—are such, in fact, as many people make without setting pen to paper. But, while the history of adventure gains nothing from Dr. Browne's expeditions, his account of them is above the average of Alpine writing. Like most high-souled men, he can be eloquent when on the summit of a mountain. His reflections on the summit of the Oldenhorn are those of a churchman, just as Prof. Tyndall's reflections on the summit of the Matterhorn are those of a scientist. It is interesting to compare the difference of thought and the resemblance of mood. Neither changed his views in crossing the glaciers, but both felt the same thrill. Both were filled by the same rapture, the same spirit of exaltation.

The articles on Pontresina and the Engadine—perhaps intended as ballast to the purely sportive articles—deserve notice both for themselves and for the author's motive in writing them. These papers, he says in the preface, "will not be without result if they induce any one to take more than a surface interest in the beautiful district to which so many of us in London owe such strength as we have." Davos and St. Moritz must boast each year more than one *Kurgast* who is competent not only to read Ulric Chiampel, but to make original researches in the history of the Grisons. Why does not some one, in the intervals of skating and tobogganing, take up Georg Jenatsch? It is well known that Symonds intended to bring this wonderfully able and energetic man to the notice of English readers. Meyer's novel has aroused a certain amount of curiosity about him, and a sound historical study of his part in the Thirty Years' War would receive a wide welcome. And then the constitutional history of the Grisons is another important theme for some grateful person who has been cured by its air.

A delightful paper on "Collecting Ancestors" is the best of Dr. Browne's remaining essays, but "A Night with a Salmon" describes the most unusual experience which is recorded in his book. In 1868 he hooked a fish in the Tay which fought ten hours and a half and then escaped. He has reason to believe that it was the same monster which was soon after captured in the nets at Newburgh, and proved to be the largest salmon on record. It weighed seventy-four pounds, and is honored by a cast at South Kensington. A photograph of the fish is reproduced at p. 138.

An account of "Archæological Frauds in Palestine," based on M. Clermont Ganneau, seems hardly in keeping with the rest of 'Off the Mill,' but sounds a needed warning to the ignorant collector of "Mosaic" antiquities. However, it is certain that the same people who *construct* ruins in their grounds will, in spite of all revelations, continue to buy Jerusalem relics for their museums.

Progressive Morality: An Essay in Ethics. By Thomas Fowler, D.D., LL.D. Macmillan & Co. 1895.

One may admire such studies of the fundamental principles of morality as those of Sidgwick and Martineau and Stephen, and find them a good gymnastic for the mind, and yet wonder whether they have much or any influence on the conduct of life, so impossible it seems to infer the concrete of action from any theory of ethics. During our civil war the Transcendentalists who were enamoured of the intuitional morality of Carlyle and Martineau, must have been not a little grieved, if not confounded, to find these high-stepping ones totally unable to appreciate the moral values of our situation, while such dealers in utilitarian "pig's-wash" as Spencer and Mill and Darwin had no difficulty in determining the merits of the conflict between the opposing parties. Because these things are so, it is encouraging to be assured at the outset that Dr. Fowler means to treat his subject with direct reference to practical moral questions; and, when we have read to the last page, we find that his promise has been at least tolerably kept. Something less of introductory matter and a wider range of practical illustration would have improved his book, especially as, with a certain prurient prudishness, he has avoided the relations of the sexes altogether, notwithstanding the fact that exactly here the transition from a traditional and authoritative to a rational morality seems to be attended with more danger than at any other point.

In an introductory chapter we have a discrimination between the physical, legal, social, and religious sanctions of conduct on the one hand, and a purely moral sanction on the other. In the next we have some thrashing of old straw in the argument to prove that conscience is not an infallible guide; and something better in the development of the idea

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that not only are the dictates of conscience variable, but the duties of mankind from generation to generation. Seeking for a test of the validity of the moral sanction, Dr. Fowler finds it in the tendency of actions to produce the welfare or well-being of society. If this doctrine is utilitarian, it is interpreted in a manner that takes from it all the grossness commonly attributed to the type of ethical theory which it represents. It is refreshing to find the writer allowing that doing right will not invariably insure individual happiness. Dr. Fowler concedes that his test is vague, but when he comes to examples of its practical application in his closing chapter, with much that is obvious and even trite, he has a series of reflections which, if seriously conned and heeded, might be productive of much benefit. His examples, among others, are smuggling, the evasion of taxes, the piracy of books, partisan patronage, bribery, the refusal of able men to accept office, the slackness of Government officials. The treatment of suicide is unsatisfactory, and also the treatment of sports; fox-hunting, for example, being justified on the ground that "the additional suffering caused to the fox is far more than counterbalanced by the beneficial effects in health and enjoyment to the hunter." The borrowing and lending of money, the rearing of children as if they were playthings or pet animals, and many other matters of great importance, are touched upon less carefully than we could wish; but, taken altogether, the book is a more helpful one than many others of its kind. The frequent references to the author's other books smack too much of the "reading advertisement."

Biography of James G. Blaine. By Gail Hamilton. Norwich, Conn.: The Henry Bill Publishing Co.; New York: Charles Barmore. 1895. 8vo, pp. iv, 722.

The Conkling and Blaine Fry Controversy, 1866. By James B. Fry. (For private distribution.) 8vo, pp. 341.

Carter Henry Harrison. A Memoir. By Willis John Abbot. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1895. 8vo, pp. 254.

GAIL HAMILTON'S Life of Blaine is a performance that will shed renown neither on its author nor on its subject. Its outward garb is that of the usual subscription book. The paper and print are good, save that the former is glossy; but there are no headlines, except the title of the book, no marginal dates or other aids to the reader, no index, no list of the illustrations. The tale of the latter is made up by including plates of the Capitol at Washington, an interior of the House of Representatives, etc. As for literary qualities, it can only be said that the work offends against the canons of good taste in every conceivable way. It is written in a turgid and bombastic style that breaks out even in its title, it abounds in phrases and sentences that are evidently intended to have a Scriptural twang, and it is full of an ambitious species of fustian that often degenerates into sheer nonsense. Perhaps two or three specimens will best serve to indicate its peculiar qualities. Of some Scotch Presbyterians among Blaine's ancestors we are told that "they died under contract with God, in full expectation that he would, and moral demand that he should, grant them immortal life in Jesus Christ our Lord." After mentioning that Mr. Blaine's voice was not heard in prayer-meeting, his biographer adds: "The lamp of his faith glowed with a steady, cheerful, and far-reaching light, but that particular burner he never used." Elsewhere we learn that "thus along the general principles which shaped themselves in the great seething mass of facts, he trod a clear path to logical positions which often seemed to the desultory mind segregated and sometimes inconsistent." And it seems that among the brilliant features of his eulogy of Garfield was "the insight which lifted Garfield's pedigree from the zone of demagogism to the dignity of self-respecting independence."

Infelicity of diction, however, and newspaper rhetoric might be tolerated in these tolerant times if the book otherwise furnished what its readers would naturally expect to find in it. But here also it fails, for it gives no information on various matters that a Life of Blaine should not ignore. For instance, although considerable space is devoted to high-flown descriptions of his ancestors and their matrimonial alliances, there is not a word about his own marriage, not a word about his wife's family or connections or circumstances; not even her name is once mentioned; and when letters written by or to her are printed, there is no indication except in the context that she was the writer or the recipient, although in the case of other letters this information is properly given. Another serious omission is the absence of any particulars concerning the contents of the celebrated Mulligan letters, so that the reader who has no knowledge of them except what can be derived from this book will be quite unable to understand the most important incident in the life of Blaine. In fact, the whole arrangement of the biographic material and the chaotic manner in which the correspondence is injected must tend to bewilder and confuse, instead of furnishing a vivid portrait of a man who was certainly a conspicuous and picturesque figure of his time.

The late Gen. Fry's account of the breaking out of the fateful quarrel between Blaine and Conkling, *par nobile fratrum*, may be of service to the future historian in that it embalms the choice flowers of rhetoric which these two distinguished party leaders were accustomed to fling about them in their debates in Congress. It also throws some interesting sidelights on the business of bounty-jumping during the war, and on the peculiar methods pursued by various towns and counties to procure substitutes for citizens drafted into the military service.

Mr. Abbot's memoir of Carter Harrison is a piece of journalism put up in handsome book form. It is an absurdly high-flown eulogy of a typical American politician, instead of supplying, as it could have done, a truthful picture of a remarkable career. Here, as in the 'Life of Blaine,' it will be utterly impossible for the otherwise uninstructed reader to understand how it could happen that so pure a patriot should have aroused such bitter opposition. A biographer can have but little esteem for his subject if he considers it necessary to suppress or ignore conspicuous and familiar facts and circumstances.

The Constitutional Antiquities of Sparta and Athens. By Gustav Gilbert. Translated by E. J. Brooks and T. Nicklin. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. 1895.

DR. SANDYS, well known for his many and considerable contributions to classical studies, all remarkable for good taste, sound judgment, and non-insular command of the literature of the matter in hand, has, of late, done good service in promoting translations from the German, as recently in the English edition of Seyffert's 'Dictionary of Classical Antiquities' and now in the English version of Gilbert's standard work 'Handbuch der griechischen Staatsalterthümer.' The demand for the translation of German works into English is apparently not so great in America as in England, because American scholars are, as a rule, far better acquainted with German than are English scholars of the same grade, and German works are often in familiar use here years and years before our English kinsmen wake up to the importance of them, and sometimes the translation is absurdly unnecessary. Why, for instance, should anybody have translated Kluge's 'Etymological Dictionary of German' from the fourth edition when the fifth edition of the original was out, and what conceivable use could anybody make of an Etymological Dictionary of German who could not read German? Some years ago an English scholar translated Paul's 'Principien' into English and retained all the German illustrations. To be sure, Paul's own German is much more crabbed than the German of his illustrations, but even this is no justification for so absurd a proceeding. And there are other enterprises not necessary to specify that are scarcely less unreasonable. On the other hand, American journals have been attacked by their English contemporaries for admitting articles written in German on German themes, or themes of comparative grammar, which cannot be understood without a good knowledge of German.

At the same time, there are German textbooks enough that demand translation, and among these we may class Gilbert's work, which was recognized immediately upon its appearance as a production of uncommon merit, and which, in a comparatively short time, passed into a second edition—although it may be noted that a second edition in Germany has not so much significance as a second edition here. It is a valuable work, and the original need not be discussed in this place, as the value of it has not been enhanced by the translation except in the Introduction, which deals with the Aristotelian Constitution of Athens, and which has naturally elicited a number of notes from Prof. Sandys. The translation itself, by Messrs. Brooks and Nicklin, appears to have been made with unusual regard to the requirements of English idiom, and does not translate itself back into German with the fatal facility characteristic of so many mechanical renderings. The long sentences are broken up, and the intercalated relative clauses are smoothed out. Fine turns on which a German would pride himself are sacrificed to English directness, and the translation has a decidedly business air. In short, a more immediate feeling of German might have given us a worse rendering.

The degree of accuracy seems to be above the average, but no one can vouch for absolute fidelity without a line-for-line comparison throughout, which can hardly be expected of the midsummer reviewer. But the specimens selected for examination have not revealed any vital errors. The troublesome question of the transliteration of Greek names has been solved, if it may be called a solution, by following the Lesbian rule, according to which familiar words take the Latin, unfamiliar words the Greek form. Of course, on this "system," we must expect inconsistencies. He who writes *Eubulos* ought not to write *Bouleutai;* and on p. 99, l. 18, we have Acropolis, and l. 21, Akropolis.

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The Great Frozen Land (Bolshaia Zemelskiia Tundra): Narrative of a winter journey across the Tundras, and a sojourn among the Samoyads. By Frederick George Jackson. With illustrations and maps. Edited from his journals by Arthur Montefiore. Macmillan. 1895. 8vo, pp. xviii, 297.

THE author of this book left England more than a year ago, with eight companions, to explore Franz Josef Land; but as the ship in which they sailed has not returned, it is uncertain whether he was able to reach his destination. The intention was to establish a permanent camp from which to make sledge journeys as far north as possible. It was in order to prepare himself for this work, to acclimatize himself, and to submit various foods, clothing, sledges, and other apparatus to the rigorous test of an arctic winter, that the adventurous journey was made of which this interesting volume is the record.

In August, 1893, Mr. Jackson landed at Habarova, a little summer settlement of the Samoyads, on the straits which separate Waigatz Island from the mainland of European Russia. This island is regarded by the natives as holy ground, and in a sledge journey around its coast Mr. Jackson discovered a burial-place and a sacrificial pile, consisting of a "few posts stuck in the ground, around which a pile of reindeer horns and driftwood had been made. On the top of one of the posts a bear's skull was placed, and several were rudely cut into something resembling the features of the human face. We wanted wood badly, but Vasili would not touch any of that on the pile, for reasons religious of course. Yet, like the rest of the Samoyads, he was nominally a Christian." Early in October the winter came with surprising suddenness, and by the middle of the month the whole settlement had begun its annual migration across the Great Tundra to the Pechora River, a distance of about seven hundred miles. Of this vast swamp, which is practically impassable during the summer season, Mr. Jackson says: "Nothing that I know in nature can equal the dreariness and solitude of the Tundra. . . . Track there is none, and you may wander east, west, north, and south without landmark to set you right. Day after day and week after week your deer will gallop along their frozen way, and your compass, or, if the gray clouds will lift for a while, the stars in the heaven above, will be your only guide." Even the frequent gales that drive furiously across it, accompanied by a cold so intense "that even to breathe is painful," bring an almost welcome relief to its monotony. The only incidents of the journey, which Mr. Jackson was the first Englishman to make, were an occasional upset; and once he lost his way owing to a thick fog, and was compelled to sleep in the open with the thermometer thirteen degrees below zero. In order to test the capacity of the Russian horses for arctic work he continued his winter drive across the Pechora valley and the Little Tundra to Archangel, and from thence around the coast of the White Sea to Kirkeness in Lapland, in all a distance of twenty-five hundred miles. Here he took steamer for Vadsö, where he arrived on January 18, just in time to join in "a sort of annual fête—the first sight of the returning sun." The people climbed the hills behind the town and greeted the appearance of its golden upper rim "with loud and prolonged cheers." The remainder of the journey was by sea, round the North Cape and down the Norwegian coast, in the small steamers that make the dangerous mid-winter passage at irregular intervals.

The Samoyad, as pictured by Mr. Jackson, notwithstanding his good qualities, his peacefulness, honesty, and hospitality, is an uninteresting and in some respects a very disagreeable companion. It is evident, however, that in his dress, his dwelling, and his food, into which blood largely enters, he has wisely adapted himself to his circumstances. His most unpleasant characteristic is his uncleanliness, and the discomforts of our traveller, who spent months in a choom or wigwam nine feet by ten, which often held nine people swarming with vermin, and sometimes drunk, can be better imagined than described. In fact, Mr. Jackson's pluck and enthusiasm for his chosen task in voluntarily subjecting himself to suffering, privation, and peril for the sake merely of the training which they gave him, are perhaps the strongest impressions which we have received from his book. His winter's experience taught him much about the relative strength of the different kinds of sledges used in the regions traversed, and also proved to him the value of the Samoyad's deer-skin clothing and tent for protection from the cold. At the same time it compelled him reluctantly to abandon the intention of using the reindeer on his Polar expedition, on account of the impossibility of supplying him with the moss or lichen which is his only food. Accordingly, ponies and dogs were substituted for him.

The author's friend and editor, Mr. Arthur Montefiore, has added many useful notes to Mr. Jackson's narrative, besides giving an interesting chapter on the Samoyad language and three of their folk-tales. In an appendix he has also given a lucid account of the Jackson-Harmsworth expedition, its objects and equipment. There are some interesting illustrations, several maps, and an excellent index.

Memoirs of the Prince de Joinville. Macmillan & Co. 1895.

THE 'Vieux Souvenirs' of the Prince de Joinville do not cover the whole of his life, but only the most active and interesting part of it, the period before 1848. As he was born in 1818, he was but thirty at the time of the February Revolution, which banished him from France. Still, thanks to his career as a sailor and to his birth, which enabled him to rise through the ranks more quickly than ordinary mortals, he had already seen much by the time his career was put an end to. He had even commanded the fleet which, in 1844, bombarded Tangiers and Mogador to punish the Sultan of Morocco for aid given to Abd-el-Kader.

The Prince tells of his experiences in a light, genial way. He takes us to many countries, brings us into the best society—kings, princes, and distinguished men of all sorts. He tells many anecdotes, some of them pretty good ones, and reports many curious sights—for instance, an old Circassian on his way to Mecca with "the twelve best-looking girls in his family" to sell on the way in order "to pay the expenses of his journey." In short, he has given us a volume any part of which is pleasant reading in whatever order we read it.

The least interesting part is the lamentations about the evils of these later days. These jeremiads, are, of course, entirely natural on the part of the son of a deposed king, but they are not very convincing. No doubt France, like the world in general, was a pleasanter place for the highest classes before the "revolutionary spirit" got abroad; but, whatever the evils of the rise of European democracy, they are not entirely due to the jealous ambition of a few self-seeking demagogues and the blind delusion of the masses, as the Prince thinks. On the other hand, he has much sympathy for America, but we fear it is for the America of fifty years ago rather than that of to-day. His description of a trip to the West is interesting, even if we get no new light from it. In Washington, on his different visits, he met several Presidents and other notable men. Here is a comment on Congress:

"In the United States the Senate is the body which has the real power and which actually governs. This assembly, very few in numbers, especially at the time of which I speak, chosen by the Chamber [*sic*], and of which the members were almost invariably reëlected, had leisure to learn the necessities of administrative government and to become a permanent body, whose action was both lasting and intelligent, like the Council of Ten at Venice, or the Committee of the Comédie-Française. But the Representative Chamber, full as it was of journalists who had never studied anything beyond the art of attracting subscriptions to their papers, knew nothing whatever. Luckily it only formed a second wheel in the Constitution, but, in spite of that fact, anything likely to add to its enlightenment was useful."

In Philadelphia on one occasion he had taken tickets for the theatre, but, when he arrived, "saw a huge poster over the door, 'Prince de Joinville at 8:30,' and beat an instant and hasty retreat." At another time he had "to go to Boston for a great ball in the old town hall, called Faneuil Hall, the cradle of American Independence. I made my entry at that ball preceded and surrounded by an army of solemn stewards wearing huge wigs, and with rather a good-looking woman whom no one knew on my arm. She called herself America Vespucia, and she began to swear like any heathen when somebody spilt a glass of lemonade over her fine velvet gown."

The translation is better than the average, the binding neither pretty nor appropriate; the numerous illustrations by the author show that he was more of a soldier than an artist.

Essai de Bibliographie Canadienne. Par Philéas Gagnon. Imprimé pour l'Auteur. Quebec. 1895.

THIS "Essai" is not a systematic account of the sources of Canadian history. It is the catalogue of a private library, with the owner's comments on his rare and remarkable books. But Canadian bibliography is in such a primitive condition that the catalogue of a good library deserves notice. M. Gagnon has been an active collector for twenty years, and his spoils are disclosed in 5,018 titles. They are of every species known to the library, and of every degree of value. Books and newspapers furnish 3,747 titles, and the list also includes autographs, manuscripts, maps, plans, portraits, and book plates. An enumeration of the whole, with occasional notes, fills 711 pages.

M. Gagnon has treasures of the utmost rarity. For instance, his set of the Quebec *Herald*, 1788–90, is unique. The Historical Society of Quebec owned a set at one time, but a few years ago it disappeared. Until this comes to light, M. Gagnon is the sole possessor of a much-coveted file of newspapers. On the other hand, he has brought together many things which, to those who are not of the microscopic school, will seem mere junk. A reprint of Stanley's 'Through the Dark Continent,' Montreal, 1878, is out of place here, nor would Richard de Bury's

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'Philobiblon,' "traduit par H. Cocheris, Paris, 1856," be of much service to the student of Canadian history. The greatest disparity of merit occurs among the pamphlets. Canada is not famous for the production of extensive works, but its literature has always abounded in *brochures*. M. Gagnon sweeps in every pamphlet he can find. "C'est dans ces plaquettes de cinq, dix, ou trente pages, si faciles à perdre, que les historiens puisent quelquefois un renseignement cherché vainement ailleurs, et qui leur est d'un grand secours. C'est pour cela que nous gardons avec un soin jaloux toutes nos brochures." And so we have M. Laramée's "Lecture sur l'alcoolisme, Montréal, 1878," and an essay of M. Barré, "On Mr. W. Lynch's pamphlet entitled Scientific Buttermaking, Montreal, 1884." Should these treatises survive a general cataclysm, some future age may cherish them as we cherish Athenæus. At present they can claim no place in a distinctively national library.

But while M. Gagnon's catalogue would be the better for a little pruning, he has erred on the safe side. Most of his books are, in their field, of permanent importance. He is especially strong in whatever relates to the Province of Quebec, though here a *lacuna* in the bibliography of the Eastern Townships remains to be filled. His copious list of French Canadian books comes to the aid of Morgan's 'Bibliotheca Canadensis,' which is weak on that side. Canadian incunabula are fully represented. Indeed, M. Gagnon has unearthed certain episcopal charges of Pontbriand, issued in 1759, which seem to have been printed on a press presented to the Bishop of Quebec by Louis XV. This puts back the introduction of printing to the year of the Conquest. The date hitherto accepted is June 21, 1764, the day when the first number of the *Gazette de Québec* was published. Anything printed in Canada before 1800 may be called rare.

One vital question is always before the Province of Quebec—the relation, namely, of French and English, of Roman Catholic and Protestant. A large number of books in M. Gagnon's library relate to the contest of religious parties. No attempt of Protestants to win over Roman Catholic proselytes has escaped his notice. His comment on Chiniquy's 'Le Prêtre, la Femme et le Confessional' is as follows: "Ce livre est probablement le plus méchant qu'on ait publié au Canada. À raison de notre qualité de bibliophile canadien, on nous pardonnera de le laisser figurer ici dans notre collection. L'histoire aura besoin de connaître ces ouvrages pour les flétrir." Not every bibliography can show so spirited a note as this.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

An Infatuation. By Gyp. R. F. Fenno & Co. 50 cents.
Anstey, F. Lyre and Lancet: A Story in Scenes. Macmillan. $1.25.
Beaman, A. H. M. Stambuloff. [Public Men of To-day.] F. Warne & Co. $1.25.
Beaumont, Mary. A Ringby Lass, and Other Stories. Macmillan. 75 cents.
Billings, Dr. J. S. Index-Catalogue of the Library of the Surgeon-General's Office, U. S. Army. Vol. XVI. W—Zythus.
Bliss, H. L. Coin's Financial Fraud. Chicago: Donohue, Henneberry & Co. 25 cents.
Breton, Frederic. God-Forsaken: A Novel. Putnams. 50 cents.
Carleton, Will. Rhymes of Our Planet. Harpers. $1.25.
Carpenter, Prof. G. R. Irving's Tales of a Traveller. [English Classics.] Longmans, Green & Co. $1.
Cartwright, Julia. Raphael in Rome. [*Portfolio* Monographs.] Macmillan.
Cooper, O. H., Estill, H. F., and Lemmon, Leonard. History of Our Country: A Text-Book for Schools. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.15.
Crawford, F. M. Mr. Isaacs. Macmillan. 50 cents.
Crosby, Prof. W. O. Tables for the Determination of Common Minerals. 3d ed. Boston: The Author. $1.25.
Curry, S. S. Lessons in Vocal Expression. Course I. Boston: School of Expression.
Darmesteter, James. The Zend-Avesta. Part I. 2d ed. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Davis, R. H. About Paris. Harpers. $1.25.
Defoe, Daniel. A Journal of the Plague Year. London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. $1.
Denison, T. S. Lively Plays for Live People. Chicago: T. S. Denison.
Greenough, Prof. J. B., and Kittredge, Prof. G. L. First Six Books of the Æneid. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Hardy, Thomas. Two on a Tower. Harpers. $1.50.
Hawthorne, Nathaniel. Twice-told Tales. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 60 cents.
Hill, Prof. A. S. The Principles of Rhetoric. New ed., revised and enlarged. Harpers. $1.20.
Holm, Adolf. The History of Greece. Vol. II. The Fifth Century B. C. Macmillan. $2.50.
Hunt, W. H. The Obligations of the Universities towards Art. [Romanes Lectures, 1895.] Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Kinealy, Prof. J. H. An Elementary Text-Book on Steam Engines and Boilers. Spon & Chamberlain. $2.
King Richard III. King Henry V. [Temple Shakspere.] London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. Each 45 cents.
Kingsley, Henry. Leighton Court. Scribners. $1.
Langhans, Paul. Kleiner Handelsatlas. Gotha: Justus Perthes; New York: Westermann.
Laughlin versus Coin: Facts about Money. Chicago: E. A. Weeks & Co. 50 cents.
Lee, Sidney. Dictionary of National Biography. Vol. XLIII. Owens—Passelewe. Macmillan. $3.75.
Lubbock, Sir John. The Pleasures of Life. Macmillan. 25 cents.
Masterpieces of British Literature. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Meade, Mrs. L. T. A Soldier of Fortune. R. F. Fenno & Co. $1.
Mommsen, Prof. Theodor. The History of Rome. 5 vols. Scribners. $10.
New, C. H. Franc Elliott. G. W. Dillingham. 50 cents.
Not Counting the Cost. Appletons. $1.
Pater, Walter. The Child in the House: An Imaginary Portrait. Boston: Copeland & Day. $1.50.
Peacock, T. L. Maid Marian and Crochet Castle. Macmillan. $1.25.
Roberts, Dr. J. B. Modern Medicine and Homœopathy. Philadelphia: Edwards & Docker Co. 75 cents.
Robert Louis Stevenson: A Study. Boston: Copeland & Day. $2.50.
Rothwell, R. P. The Mineral Industry: Its Statistics, Technology and Trade. 1894. Scientific Publishing Co. $5.
Southworth, Mrs. The Three Beauties. M. J. Ivers & Co. 25 cents.
Swain, Dr. Rachel. Swain Cookery, with Health Hints. Fowler & Wells Co. $1.50.
Swift, F. D. Demosthenes against Conon and Callicles. London: Methuen & Co.
Tucker, Dr. J. C. To the Golden Goal, and Other Sketches. San Francisco: William Doxey.
Wallace, Lew. Ben-Hur: Eine Geschichte aus der Zeit des Herrn Jesu. Harpers. $1.50.
Woolson, Constance F. The Front Yard, and Other Italian Stories. Harpers. $1.25.

READY.

THOMAS'S PRACTICAL GERMAN GRAMMAR.

For Schools and Colleges. By CALVIN THOMAS, Professor in the University of Michigan. X+411 pp. 12mo. $1.12 *net*.

Consists of two parts: I. A drill-book for beginners. II. A grammar for students of literature. An especially attractive feature of Part I. is the exercises, which are made up of reading lessons and colloquies, the latter being closely related in vocabulary and expression to the former. The reading lessons are connected wholes, and are mostly in the form of letters supposed to be written by a German-American boy who goes to Germany for study and travel.

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